

# THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

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**CROWN PRINCE GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS OF SWEDEN**

(The heir to the throne of Sweden comes to the United States to unveil a monument at Washington, in memory of Ericsson who invented the *Monitor* of Civil War fame. But he and the Crown Princess Louise will remain in this country as welcome visitors for two months. The Prince's full name is Oscar Frederick William Olaf Gustavus Adolphus, Duke of Scandia. He is forty-three years old, the son of the reigning King Gustav of Sweden, who is now in his sixty-eighth year. The Princess is a granddaughter of Queen Victoria of England.—See page 651)



# THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

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## THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

### *A Ten-Day General Strike in Great Britain*

The crisis in Great Britain caused by a general strike of trade-union workers was the subject that took first place in the news of the world for the month of May. A situation so far-reaching in its bearings and possible consequences might have been regarded with anxiety in other countries at any time since the development of the modern industrial system a century or more ago. But the various parts of the world of commerce and trade are now, since the Great War, so much more closely related to one another than ever before, that a general strike in a country of pivotal importance like Great Britain must inevitably cause deep solicitude throughout the world. It was, therefore, with immense relief that the news was received on May 12 that the Trades Union Congress, through its principal officers, had visited the official residence of Prime Minister Baldwin at noon and had there informed him and a group of Cabinet Ministers that the strike was at an end. This news did not refer explicitly to the coal miners, but rather to the railway workers, iron and steel workers, and men of various other unions who had been called out in sympathetic strikes to support the position of the Miners' Federation. In calling off the general strike, however, it was made clear that an understanding had been reached by virtue of which the miners could soon resume work, with the assurance that negotiations would proceed vigorously for a fundamental treatment of the intricate problems of the coal industry.

### *Contrasting Types of Revolution*

A general strike is a paralyzing thing that is not to be tolerated. It is revolution in its worst and most deadly form. Whatever

criticism might be brought against the kind of revolution that has given Italy its régime of "Fascismo," and has introduced the present era of the Mussolini dictatorship, the excuse is offered that this movement is constructive. Italy was falling into a state of anarchy and chaos from which it has been saved—as the apologists for Mussolini declare—by bringing a wonderful new spirit of unity and coöperation to bear upon a scene of discord, of political futility and of industrial break-down. How this has all come about, and what it has meant for Italy, Mr. Frank H. Simonds informs us in the present number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS. This study of the Italian situation is fresh and vivid, Mr. Simonds having written it on shipboard as he returned some days ago directly from the scene of his Italian inquiries. How a revolution may be recuperative and unifying in its dealings with the social and economic life of a nation is a question that the reader, therefore, will find well answered as he studies Mr. Simonds' pages. A general strike, on the other hand, or a general lockout, is a destructive process, in that regard being like civil war. It is far too dangerous a measure to be taken under any circumstances that are likely to present themselves in practical fashion in this day and generation.

### *A Warning Rather Than a Struggle*

If we were seeking, through an extreme indulgence in the luxury of being tolerant, to find a theoretical excuse for a general strike, only one hypothesis could be presented that would seem to justify it. If a very brief general strike should rouse a sluggish government to take constructive action in a vital matter, where sheer neglect and inefficiency were permitting the whole

economic life of the nation to drift from bad to worse, then apologists for so crude a weapon as the sympathetic strike might make some claims. As regards this latest attempt at the industrial strike on a universal scale, it offers the paradox of victory won only through prompt acceptance of apparent defeat. If the extremists in the labor camp had held undisputed sway, and the strike had been continued to the bitter end, its possible success from their standpoint could have meant nothing but ruin for all interests, including their own. The strike was indeed formidable, but it did not succeed in paralyzing the nation. No comparable strike in the history of the world perhaps was ever so free from bloody riots, loss of life, arson, sabotage, or terrorism. It was a very ugly and expensive affair, but, ending as it did, it was rather a warning and a demonstration than a typical strike.

*Coal as  
Britain's  
Requisite*

England has been in a bad way with her subsidies, that chiefly take the form of doles for a standing army of the unemployed that never for a good while past has fallen below



A PICTURE TRANSMITTED BY RADIO FROM LONDON, SHOWING TROOPS GUARDING FOOD SUPPLIES

(The mechanical process of sending pictures through the air by "wireless" had been perfected and in operation only a few days when the British industrial crisis afforded a reason for utilizing it. Such a picture as this one can be transmitted across the ocean in less than half an hour, the fundamental principle being the same that has become so familiar through the transmission of sounds)

the million mark. Millions of workers, meanwhile, were dependent upon keeping the factory boilers fired up, and steam power available. England's economic life had, in other words, required an ample supply of coal at selling prices per ton that could meet foreign competition. With practically no water power at hand, the vast structure of British industry must collapse without its supply of coal for steam power. An immense tonnage of merchant ships was mainly relying upon ample coal at advantageous prices. Furthermore, England had long enjoyed a considerable export trade in coal that could not be sacrificed without intensifying the trade depression that had caused so much unemployment. English coal is produced in several distinct districts under conditions varying greatly as regards methods and costs of mine operation. When trade conditions make the demand brisk, these inequalities are overlooked. At such times the mines that can be advantageously worked make money and can afford to pay fairly good wages. Those mines that are more costly to operate make a bare profit, and pay the miners as little as they may.

*Ups and Downs  
of the Coal  
Industry*

Miners meanwhile become established in their homes and neighborhoods, and the tendency is to have as many workmen available in each district as are needed when trade conditions justify the largest production. Thus, on account of the French invasion of the Ruhr, and certain other continental conditions, Germany bought almost 15,000,000 tons of English coal in 1923, but only a little more than 4,000,000 tons in 1925. France bought almost 19,000,000 tons of English coal in 1923, and only a little over 10,000,000 in 1925. The total export demand for British coal in 1923 was, in round figures 80,000,000 tons, and last year (1925) it was only 50,000,000. The coal requirements of British domestic industry have been at a standstill because of trade depression. Such were the conditions when, a year ago, the English coal industry was subjected to so severe a strain. The miners were united in a powerful federation that embraced unions in all the different mining areas. The owners and operators regarded it as necessary to deal with wage questions on the basis of varying facts relating to the separate districts. Obviously, mines could not operate at all in

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A GROUP OF ENGLISH LABOR LEADERS AND HEADS OF THE LABOR PARTY

(The Council of the Trades Union Congress is a group that is in close touch with the Labor party as strongly represented in Parliament. A number of the Labor members in the House of Commons are also important leaders of trades unions. This is true, for instance, of Mr. J. H. Thomas, in front of the picture at the right. Mr. Ramsay MacDonald, in the center, was Labor Prime Minister and is now leader of the Opposition in Parliament; and Mr. Arthur Henderson, at the left, is also an eminent parliamentary figure. The picture was taken just after the Trade Union conference at Memorial Hall, London, which decided in favor of the general strike to begin Monday, May 3, following the breakdown of negotiations between coal operators and miners.)

some districts unless miners were willing to work longer hours or at reduced wage scales. The federation of miners insisted upon viewing the coal industry as a unified national affair, and in July, 1925, the threatened coal strike was about to take place, with the sympathy of other trades.

*The Crisis  
of 1925 and  
the Subsidy*

In 1923, when the demand for coal was exceptionally large and the selling price comparatively good, a new agreement had been negotiated between the miners and their employers which added about 11 per cent. to the minimum rates of pay. However, when last year the coal trade collapsed, the miners federation would yield nothing, claiming that a decent standard of living could not be maintained with any reduction of pay. Accordingly, the coal operators, on July 1, gave the required thirty days' notice of a termination of the agreement of 1923. They offered wages that the miners were not willing to take, and the mines would certainly have shut down on August 1. From one standpoint this would have been

a lockout, and from the opposite standpoint it would have been a strike. Anyhow, the Baldwin Ministry intervened at this point, its one object being to keep the mines at work and to prevent the disasters that would result from a total failure of the coal supply. The Government offered to pay a subsidy to the mining industry out of the public treasury, not as a temporary loan but as a permanent gift.

*Costly  
Postponement  
of Trouble*

This subsidy was to run until May 1, 1926, a period of nine months, during which time the wage scales of 1923 would be maintained and the Government would make up the difference to the mine operators between loss and profit by monthly payments which, as it turned out, aggregated for the entire period a sum exceeding \$100,000,000. There were excuses of a practical nature for a policy which on principle could not have been justified. The ups and downs of the coal trade during the twelve years from 1913 to 1925 had been violent. These were largely due to international conditions that



**SIR HERBERT SAMUEL, WHOSE INTERVENTION ENDED THE GENERAL STRIKE**

(Sir Herbert had headed the Coal Commission appointed by Premier Baldwin last summer, devoting five months to the report completed in March, recommending nationalization of the coal industry)

lay beyond the control of the British coal industry. The reaction of 1925 had come so swiftly as not to have been fully anticipated. Everyone admitted that a broad and permanent solution must be found for the obvious and increasing difficulties that surrounded the business of taking British coal out of the ground and supplying it to its various classes of consumers. But in the emergency of July, 1925, there was not time for working out a permanent solution. Since the operators could not be compelled to work the mines at a loss, and since the miners could not be compelled to work on wage scales that they refused to accept, it only remained for the Government itself either to seize the mines, nationalize the industry, and carry it on as best it could, or else to gain time by paying subsidies to tide over the winter of 1925-26. It was merely a postponement, at heavy cost, of a settlement that might as well have been faced.

*Logic of the  
Nine Months'  
Truce*

It will be remembered that Premier Baldwin said frankly at the time that he hated the policy he was adopting, namely, that of taking public money to bolster up a single industry that was privately owned and

operated. A good deal, however, might have been said in defense even of this temporizing expedient. If privately owned utility companies had been supplying the metropolis of London, for instance, with the services of water and illumination, and if for some reason having to do with practical working conditions they had been unable to continue performance of such services, it is plain that the Government would have had to intervene either by way of paying the minimum sums necessary to keep water flowing and lights burning, or else would have been obliged to take over the services for Government operation. In such case, subsidies would have been regarded as merely preliminary steps quite certain to be followed by full Government ownership and operation. For the Government to have intervened in the coal industry last July by adopting the subsidy plan was, in point of logic and of hard fact, nothing but a bold preliminary step toward the consolidation of the British coal industry, under Government control and under some form of public management. It was reasonable last summer, therefore, to expect that before the nine months' period was at an end the Baldwin Ministry would have worked out a clean-cut plan for taking over the coal industry as a national property to be dealt with in the public interest. The Labor party lost no time in setting its economists at work in order to have something to propose.

*Official  
Side-  
Stepping*

Obviously, then, Mr. Baldwin had given the country every reason to suppose that the subsidy period would be used with the utmost diligence for the shaping of a fundamental scheme upon the acceptance of which the Ministry would stake its existence. A temporary commission had reported to Mr. Baldwin in July that definite reorganization of the coal industry was essential. The strike having then been averted, Mr. Baldwin waited until September before appointing the promised Royal Commission to study all the facts and report with conclusive recommendations. Sir Herbert Samuel was chairman of this commission, which included Sir William Beveridge, Sir Herbert Lawrence, and Mr. Kenneth Lee. Neither owners nor workers in the coal industry were directly represented. Having "passed the buck" (in the official slang of Washington, D. C.,)



to Sir Herbert Samuel and his commission, the Baldwin Ministry apparently forgot everything about the coal situation except the irksome detail of supplying cash payments out of the Treasury of something more than two million pounds a month. It was not until March that the Commission made its report. A perilously short time remained for the adoption of a policy to protect the country against a strike on May 1, yet nothing whatever was done, and the whole business was relegated to the mine owners and the coal diggers, who were hopelessly at loggerheads.

*A Fluctuating Industry*

The owners, with their obsolete methods of production, had nothing to propose except to reduce the wages of miners and to increase their hours of labor. It should be said that the seven-hour day had been fixed by law in the adjustment that followed the British Government's war-time control of the coal industry. Mr. Lloyd George's so-called Sankey Commission (named after its chairman, Mr. Justice Sankey) had recommended that Parliament should enact legislation authorizing the purchase of the coal mines and of their equipment by the Government. The Sankey recommendation of a seven-hour day was adopted in 1920, but the recommendation in favor of nationalizing the coal resources, and the mines themselves, was left in suspense. In such matters, the British Government is always opportunist; and it so happened that during 1919 and 1920 there was an enormous European demand for British coal at very high prices. Under these circumstances the industry could keep the miners at work, and the Government had other things to think about. But 1921 brought a sharp reversal. American coal was being exported, and German reparations coal was bringing prices down, while a general trade depression sharply reduced the demand. The Mining Industry Act in 1920 had extended Government control up to September 1, 1921; but quite suddenly the Government announced that its control would cease five months earlier; namely, at the end of March.

*The Strike of 1921*

Thereupon the coal owners, seemingly eager to invite trouble, abolished the system of national agreements and precipitated the great coal strike of April 1, 1921. This



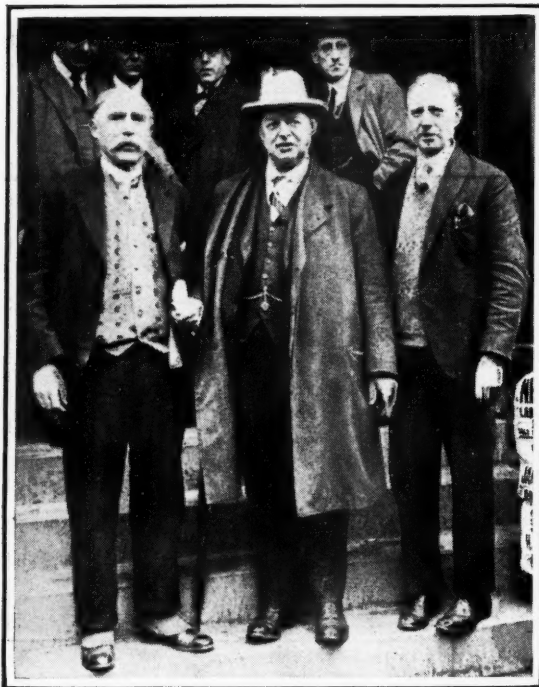
© Harris & Ewing

**RT. HON. STANLEY BALDWIN, BRITISH PRIME MINISTER**

(Mr. Baldwin's rise to the leadership of the Conservative party is a familiar story. He enjoys great personal popularity because of his frankness and his breadth of views. He lacks, however, the qualities of initiative and decision that would have settled the coal question and avoided a general strike)

struggle continued for three months, and was ended July 1, 1921, with the plan of national agreements restored, and with elaborate wage arrangements adopted that were favorable to the workers. The British coal trade was prosperous again through 1922, being helped by the sixteen weeks coal strike in the United States. Then, as we have already remarked, came the French occupation of the Ruhr in 1923, followed by a gradually increased demand for the output of the British mines. This was only a temporary condition, however, inasmuch as many steamship lines were turning to fuel oil, various countries were developing hydro-electric power, and new coal resources were being opened up in different parts of the world. The contract of 1921 between the miners and mine owners was to last until August, 1924. A strike was averted in that year (1924) by a readjustment of wages, but the trade conditions grew steadily worse until the situation of last summer arose, the circumstances of which we have already explained.





MEMBERS OF THE BRITISH TRADE UNION CONGRESS,  
WHICH DECIDED UPON A GENERAL STRIKE

(At the left is R. Shirke, representing Scottish Colliery Engine and Boilermen's Associations; next is A. B. Swales, of the Amalgamated Engineers' Union; and at the right is A. J. Cook, general secretary of the Miners' Federation)

*Time for  
Decision  
and Action*

With all these facts—of which we have given the merest outline—staring them in the face, the Government and the British chieftains of commerce and industry had shown an unaccountable lethargy. On the other hand, the Labor party, the Miners' Federation, and the standing Council of the Trade Union Congress have seemed to be thoroughly alive to the situation. The Labor Ministry of Mr. MacDonald could not reorganize the coal industry because it enjoyed power only as it was supported from day to day by the Liberals. The Baldwin Ministry, on the other hand, with an immense parliamentary majority, has had every reason and every opportunity for acting decisively. When it adopted the subsidy plan, it had, morally speaking, gone back to the war period of full Government responsibility for the operation of the coal industry. Nationalization in some form had become inevitable. The Samuel Commission, following the Sankey report, demanded nationalization of coal resources.

The labor leaders fully recognize the fact that the industry will have to be reorganized in such a way as to employ a smaller number of men, and to increase efficiency in the methods of mining and handling coal. The annual coal output per man is more than three times as large in the United States as in Great Britain. This difference can be partly though not wholly reduced by modern systems.

*Looking  
Toward a  
Settlement*

A vast number of difficult details are involved in carrying out any of the different plans for the consolidation of the coal industry under Government ownership and under some kind of public direction or oversight. But these difficulties can be overcome if powerful leadership can be found to take the helm. Mr. Baldwin enjoys the confidence of the country to a remarkable extent. He is straightforward and honest, and is broadminded and sympathetic. If he had also the driving energy of Mr. Lloyd George, he would have acted boldly upon the recommendations of the Samuel Commission, and avoided the recent strike crisis.

Behind the scenes, the strike was ended by the intervention of Sir Herbert Samuel himself. It is understood that the King and the Archbishop of Canterbury were influential in bringing the Cabinet to the point where a gentleman's understanding could be reached along the lines proposed. The Council of the Trade Union Congress called off the strike as if they were surrendering. But the trade union leaders had been sufficiently reassured by Sir Herbert Samuel and others that their demands would be heeded. This ending of the general strike left the Miners' Federation free to take its own course; but it was understood that the miners would go back to work if the owners would withdraw their lockout notices, the Government continuing the subsidy.

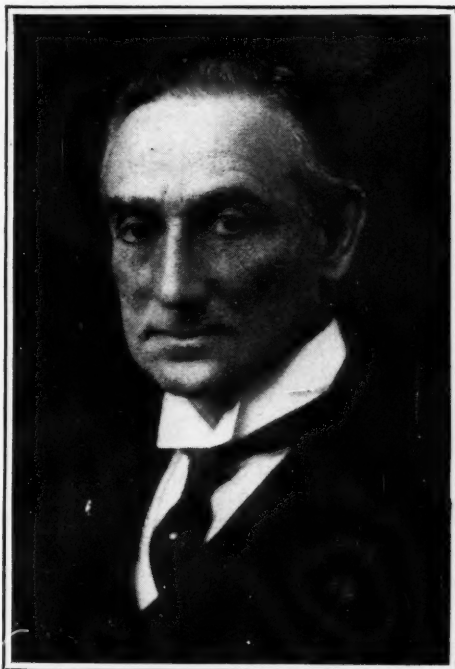
*An Effective  
Demonstration*

Exactly how many men of other trades and callings stopped work in support of the miners was a subject of dispute. It was the plan of the trades union leaders to call

out perhaps three million men at first, and to tie up additional industries day by day. With many thousands of volunteer helpers, the Government was able to operate a few railroad trains and to bring food supplies to London by motor trucks and wagons. Drivers were found for automobiles and omnibuses, but, broadly speaking, traffic was interrupted. Some of the newspapers, especially outside of London, continued to appear in greatly reduced size but the printers' strike was effective in London, and the "*British Gazette*" edited by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Winston Churchill, was a pitiable and amateurish little handbill that merely served to show the thoroughness with which the strike had stopped the printing presses. As a whole, the strike was a tremendous protest, promptly successful, against the government's slovenly neglect to deal with the coal crisis.

*The Reaction  
Against Labor*

Nobody should suppose that the workers as individuals enjoyed the situation, or that they were personally responsible. Trade unionism is an achieved fact in England, with a hundred years of history behind it. If it makes profound mistakes of policy, these are not to be corrected by attempts at the discipline of individuals here and there. When the general strike was called off on the tenth day, there was almost hysterical rejoicing throughout Great Britain. Intelligent employers would naturally take their men back as fast as possible, making no conditions. Unfortunately there were in England many vindictive and stupid employers, who were silly enough to take the view that the ending of the general strike was equivalent to what they announced as "surrender" on the part of the men. Many of these employers made hard conditions, and some of them went so far as to refuse re-employment unless the men sacrificed membership in their unions. Mr. Baldwin, knowing what had happened behind the scenes, promptly threatened such employers with the Government's serious disfavor if they continued to show this narrow spirit. Collective bargaining and the Trade Union system are too firmly established in England to be broken up by resentful employers, even though unionism is at times most seriously at fault in its methods and policies. The situation had reached a point where nothing could avail



**LORD READING, WHO IS EXPECTED TO LEAD  
IN SHAPING A PLAN FOR BRINGING THE COAL  
MINES UNDER PUBLIC OWNERSHIP**

(The Earl of Reading was until recently Governor-General of India, filling that post for five years. As Sir Rufus Isaacs he had earlier won fame in the legal profession, becoming Lord Chief Justice of England in 1913. During the war he served as High Commissioner and special ambassador at Washington.)

but vigorous public policies, directed boldly and decisively by someone capable of taking the reins and asserting leadership.

*The Path  
Is Hard  
But Plain*

Apparently a long and hard struggle is yet to come, but at least an armistice was reached on May 12. The aftermath of a great strike is always a weedy and bitter crop of troubles and sorrows. The interest of the public is paramount, and the first practical step should be the declaration of complete national ownership of coal resources and mines, with a commission to adjust compensation claims on an equitable basis. Tory Ministries in England pursued courses more radical than this proposed purchase of the coal mines when they fixed land rents in Ireland, and subsequently bought out the landlords. There are plenty of precedents for decisive action. With the owners and operators eliminated, the industry could be thoroughly reorganized. The arguments for nationalizing the fuel



THE BAPTISM OF ROME

MUSSOLINI: "In the name of God and of Italy, I christen thee IMPERIAL ROME!"

From *Il 420* (Rome, Italy)

resources of England are virtually the same as those presented by Governor Smith and by Mr. Owen Young for the public development of hydro-electric power in the State of New York. This does not mean socialism, but just the opposite. The safeguard against socialism in England lies in putting industry and commerce upon a normal basis. The coal supply is not so much an industry in itself as an underlying condition that affects all other industries. The time has come when this *sine qua non* must be controlled by Government, for the welfare of the entire country. Mr. Baldwin will, perhaps, rise to the situation.

*The Strong  
Manager Now  
in Favor*

European experience is showing plainly that government on the plane of endless debating in parliamentary bodies is no longer in full favor. Increasing numbers of people who read the newspapers make up their own minds, and they prefer to act upon public questions through other agencies than political parties. Certain classes of merchants and business men like to act through chambers of commerce. Wage earners of various kinds, such as railroad engineers or coal miners, get the point of view of their associates and are disposed increasingly to act in public matters through their trade unions. The tendency throughout Europe to dictatorships is not so much

a denial of democratic freedom and popular sovereignty as it is a somewhat impatient assertion of the right of public opinion to secure efficient management of affairs. The working head of a great business is a good deal of a dictator, but he controls and manages for the best interest of the stockholders. Various countries are trying to find their way toward efficiency, somewhat as American cities are learning to eliminate waste and secure businesslike methods through the choice of a city manager who is permitted to exercise more or less sweeping authority. A dictator like Mussolini would appear, of course, to go very much further than an American city manager in the personal direction and control of affairs. But a man like Mussolini represents bold transition in a period of emergency.

*Our Own  
Chief  
Executives*

The American presidential system, and the similar system under which we are giving constantly increased power to the Governors of our States, meet the spirit of the times better than the parliamentary systems of England, France, and most of the European countries. The American President is not a dictator, but he is an executive, exercising immense authority such as no other ruler in the world possesses. Mussolini, for the moment, is in some respects more potent than the American President; but this can be regarded only as a passing phase due to conditions that give opportunity for a man of such powerful convictions and dazzling personality as the Italian leader. The American President derives his office and his authority directly from the people, and he represents the nation with an influence and a prestige that go far beyond any strictly legal or technical limits. Thus President Coolidge ended the Pennsylvania coal strike by calmly refusing to interfere. If the opposite method—that of seizing and operating the mines—had been vital to the existence of the nation, the President would have found a way to supply coal. When he was Governor of Massachusetts he broke the police strike in Boston as efficiently as if he had been a dictator. When Kansas was in danger of freezing because of a coal strike, Governor Allen found a way to protect the public interest without delay. The new governing machinery for the State of New York enormously increases the personal authority and admin-

istrative scope of the Governor. The executive budget, whether at Washington or at our State capitals, helps to concentrate power in the Presidency or the Governorship as against the inefficiency of legislative bodies.

*Should We  
Give Relief  
To Agriculture* As Congress

was completing the work of the session in May, it was coming to close quarters with the insistent demand for legislation in the interest of agriculture. To subsidize the English coal industry, while preparing to reorganize it, is a very different thing from subsidizing American agriculture by any of the more ambitious proposals that have been pending at Washington. But some analogies might suggest themselves. The coal industry is fundamental to the economic life of Great Britain. That country has built up its manufactures; and its agriculture, while important, is at present relatively negligible. In the United States, the maintenance of agricultural prosperity on normal lines is the most vital of all our economic concerns. Mr. Harger, than whom no man in the West better understands all that relates to the production and marketing of crops, and to the financial aspects of agriculture, gives our readers in this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS the most definite statement that has yet been made about the failure of Western banks in consequence of the recent period of sharp depression in crop prices. He takes a cheerful view, finding that the pendulum is swinging back, and that the great States West of the Mississippi are working their way out of the tragic disasters to which they were subjected three or four years ago.

*Social  
Welfare  
at Stake*

But it is necessary that agriculture should be made a less hazardous occupation. Those who seek farm relief at Washington are not proposing to raid the Treasury, and they do not seek direct subsidies on any such plan as that employed for the benefit of the coal



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#### PRESIDENT COOLIDGE ENTERTAINS NEW ENGLAND VISITORS

(The President is at home with plain men, whether farmers or mechanics or fishermen off the New England coast. Men in this group include two sea captains, a Boston citizen, and a Massachusetts Congressman, who are urging the President to make his summer home on Cape Cod. But the President had already decided to spend his vacation in the upper Adirondacks at an attractive and well-appointed camp in a region of lakes and forests)

industry in England. They are trying to work out a plan for the conservation of crop values under the auspices of Government, while looking to agriculture itself to reimburse advances made by the Treasury for the marketing of exportable surpluses. The subject is complicated and difficult. Agriculture will work its way out, regardless of farm relief bills at Washington. But it may be possible through Government action to save great interests, that pertain to what is best in American civilization, through the adoption of some definite policies to lessen the fearful elements of risk that are involved in the carrying on of agriculture as a business.

*Farming  
Today in  
New England*

There is a great contrast between the agriculture of the West that has to rely upon distant markets for the sale of wheat or wool or live stock, and that of New England as described for us this month in a delightful article by Professor Frank Waugh of the Massachusetts Agricultural College. New England farming has experienced a somewhat striking revival in recent years. This is due to the immense population of New England, in industrial towns and cities, that provides a nearby market for the farmers' special products. Ultimately some of the more acute difficulties of the Western farmers will pass away through the growth



of local markets, followed by crop diversification. With what we know of soil improvement, and with modern farm machinery, the farms of the United States could readily feed three or four times our present population. A perfect balance as between city and country is not to be expected anywhere at any given moment; but country life is so valuable a feature of our American social system that its reasonable prosperity should be a matter of governmental concern.

*Emphasizing  
the Appeal  
of the East*

As we remarked last month, the present season is an appropriate one for inviting the country as a whole to give especial attention to the original States of the Atlantic seaboard. It is not merely that we are completing 150 years of our national independence, but in a variety of ways this anniversary year is to be celebrated in the States and communities that were the scenes of our Revolutionary history. The Sesqui-Centennial Exhibition, at Philadelphia, with its attendant gatherings, will

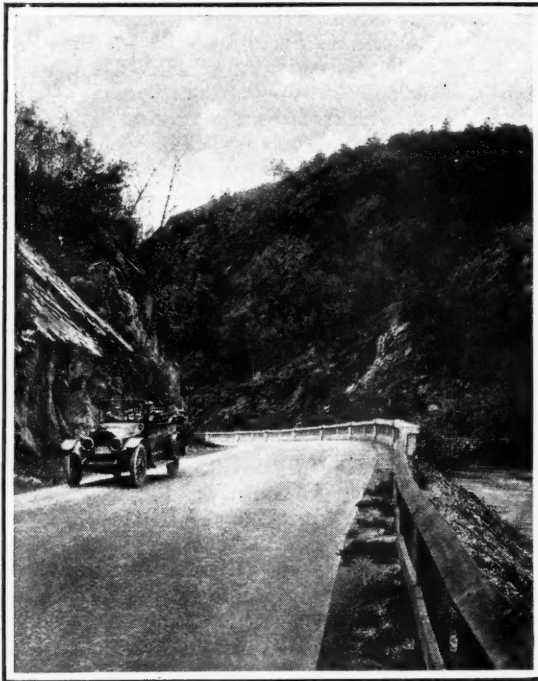
open on June 1, and will continue for a number of months. In our May number we presented an article upon Historic Philadelphia, with additional articles upon the advantages of touring by railway or automobile to the historic shrines of Virginia, Maryland, Delaware, Pennsylvania, New Jersey and New York. Several articles in our present issue are devoted to New England, with some stress upon its present economic problems and outlook. Its historical shrines are ever memorable.

*Mr. Carver  
on New Eng-  
land Economics*

Professor Carver of Harvard University is not only an eminent economist, but he is also a man who knows human nature, and makes it his business to understand by varied and wide contacts the actual living conditions of people in their families, upon their farms, at their factories, and in their communities and social groups. He has written for us an interpretation of New England that is both notable in quality and timely in its statements. He finds a New England of changing racial origins, but of continuing ideals and traditions. He believes that universal training and intellectual development are more important by far as factors in the economic well-being and permanent prosperity of a region than the possession of abundant natural resources. If cotton factories are relatively increasing in North Carolina and the South, it does not follow that the textile cities of New England will languish or decay. They have the capital, the energy, the ambition, and the trained skill to readjust their industries to meet new conditions. Since people of high capacity choose to live in New England, they will not fail to provide for themselves ample means of support, as heretofore.

*Out-of-Doors  
New  
England*

Professor Frank Waugh of the Massachusetts Agricultural College at Amherst, like Professor Carver, knows the country as a whole almost if not quite as well as he understands New England. Both of these men have made it a practice to go out and talk to the people on countless occasions,

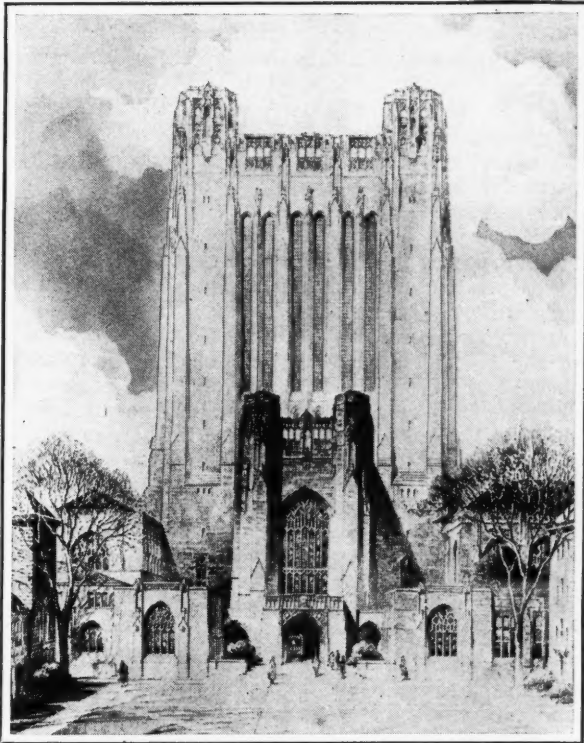


THE MOTORIST IN NEW ENGLAND FINDS EXCELLENT  
ROADS AND CHARMING SCENERY  
(This is in the Naugatuck Valley, near Waterbury, Conn.)



thus avoiding the tendency to associate only with scholars and experts, absorbed wholly in academic methods and printed pages. Incidentally, Professor Waugh is not only teaching New England to raise fruit by modern methods but is doing it himself with great success. Just as the more extensive development of Florida in special crops and in opportunities for winter recreation has had to await the immense growth of population and wealth that the nation has attained in this twentieth century, it is similarly true that a revival of New England life has begun to manifest itself for the same fundamental reasons. All of the New England States—Maine, Vermont, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut—have great natural beauty and offer delightful advantages for summer homes or for automobile touring and various kinds of recreation. While it is eminently desirable for New England to accept and practice the gospel of scientific forestry, it is true that nature is always busy replanting the hillsides with trees and bringing new timber crops to maturity every forty or fifty years. Roads are improving so rapidly that New England farms are all of them close to market towns and school facilities.

**Promise of Electric Power** Within a few years undoubtedly there will be universal distribution throughout New England of cheap electric service, whether for lighting or for the operation of machinery. Mr. E. G. Buckland, Vice-President of the New Haven Railroad system and well known as a transportation authority, writes for us upon new points of view as regards the movement of passengers and freight throughout New England. Undoubtedly there will be complete electrification of main transit lines, and improved services of all kinds. We have been glad to have the privilege of presenting also in this number the remarkable statement made



THE STERLING MEMORIAL LIBRARY AT YALE, AS DESIGNED BY JAMES GAMBLE ROGERS

(The universities, colleges, and famous schools of New England are in process of permanent rebuilding, with admirable designs and magnificent architecture. Probably no region of equal area in the entire world can exhibit such variety and amplitude of buildings and physical resources for education. Nor does one find elsewhere such large endowments or such an aggregation of students in proportion to population)

some months ago by Mr. Owen D. Young before the official New England Conference at Worcester, Mass., upon the future of hydro-electric power for this northeastern corner of the United States.

**An Eastern "Power Pool" Proposed**

Mr. Young points out the advantages that would accrue from creating what he calls a "common power pool," whereby there could be made feasible a maximum utilization of water-power, the total quantity being greatly enhanced by storage reservoirs. Besides the rivers, Mr. Young has in mind the possibility of a large development of water-power in the Bay of Fundy—a proposal that the voters of Maine, as our readers will remember, endorsed last year at the polls. This subject of power pools and of hydro-electric distribution also concerns other parts of the country, notably New York and Pennsylvania. But

it would be a great triumph for the fine intelligence and political aptitudes of the New England people if they should proceed with confidence and energy to set the example. In a time when some of the manufacturing towns of these Eastern States are losing their traditional hold upon particular industries, whether textiles or shoes or what not, the business men of New England could do nothing that would be more reassuring than to show their capacity for coöperation in carrying out the program suggested by so eminent an authority as Mr. Owen Young. No one doubts the ability of the business leaders of the numerous thriving and beautiful cities that one finds not alone in Massachusetts but in all six of the New England States. Not one of these places is willing to admit any doubt as to its happy and prosperous future. Of course no rival of Boston as a New England metropolis is likely ever to assert itself. Mr. Stuart Lowell Rich, of the Boston *Transcript*, writes for us an admirable appreciation of the qualities of Boston as an historical and a continuing center of New England life. This world-famed city is committed for its own sake to the welfare and progress of every State and locality of Yankeeland. Its leaders will not fail to see the advantages of coöperation and unity, whether in "power pools" or otherwise, for New England as a whole.

*Building  
a New  
Industry*

Meanwhile, the article on "Rayon" in this number, by Mr. Theodore Wood, shows with what quickness of adaptation some of the industrial leaders of New England are turning from the manufacture of cotton goods to the production of articles woven from the new synthetic fiber, chemically produced, that we called "artificial silk" for a time but that is now known everywhere as Rayon. The emergence of this important young industry serves to illustrate the possibilities that await New England by reason of accumulated capital, industrial experience, factory organization, and, above all, by virtue of keen reliance upon scientific research and upon advanced technical and engineering instruction in such schools as Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

*Analogies,  
Across the  
Atlantic*

To some extent the position of New England resembles that of old England. Both regions show very highly concentrated manufactur-

ing districts. Both have relied upon bringing raw materials and staple foodstuffs from long distances, while sending the finished products of their factories to many millions of consumers widely scattered and for the most part living far away. Great Britain cannot hold her precise place of leadership in the world's manufacturing industries; but, through her commercial enterprise and her business genius over a long period of time, she has accumulated enormous investments in other things besides factories located on British soil. Capital is a mobile thing, and British capital is at work all over the world—in rubber plantations, oil fields, cotton production (as in Egypt and the Sudan), and enterprises too numerous to mention in South America, Australasia, India, Africa, Canada, and even here in the United States. British merchant shipping, British banks, British insurance companies, represent a vast capitalization that is highly profitable. England may continue also to manufacture textiles, iron and steel products, and almost every other kind of useful and ornamental objects, if scientific reorganization and management are applied to a situation that now demands new methods.

*New England's  
Reservoirs  
of Wealth*

It so happens that New England also has acquired enormous investments, outside of the area of the six States lying northeast of the State of New York. The Western railroads were to a great extent built with New England capital. The development of water-power in the South, and the immense growth of cotton milling in that region, have relied largely upon New England capital and experience. Great enterprises like the United Fruit Company are an illustration of the talent of New England for creative economic effort on a large scale. With exceptionally high standards in politics and administration, New England can unify her transportation system and supply electric power through engineering investments and coöperative methods. This would be much easier to accomplish than the corresponding changes that England must institute. Our British friends must also work out a "power pool" and distribute cheap electric power throughout the island. This must come, however, from the consumption of coal as a natural resource rather than from falling water as such a resource. When England can overcome the sluggish conservatism of

certain vested interests, and can unify the ownership and management of the coal supply, there must also be public development and distribution of the services of electric power and light, the coal being consumed in great part at convenient power plants adjacent to the mines.

*Leaders to  
Awake  
Conservatives*

The moment is auspicious for energetic leadership in New England. This would not only help New York and Pennsylvania to overcome inertia, and to adopt efficient schemes for developing and controlling water power, but would also stimulate the more progressive business men and politicians of England to pull their nation out of its Mid-Victorian ruts. Meanwhile, the Scandinavian countries, Switzerland, Germany and Italy are dealing with these new-fangled problems of engineering and administration with a zeal and an enthusiasm that both New England and Old England can afford to imitate and cannot well afford to ignore. There was pending before a standing committee of the House of Commons, just before the general strike, a measure known as the Electricity Supply Bill. Under the terms of this bill a Central Electricity Board is provided with large powers.

*American  
Adopt-  
for Eng.*

Mr. Owen Young happened to be in England at that time and he was much consulted, according to London newspapers, by members of Parliament and other public men upon the general problem of supplying England with a central system of superpower, so-called, and the related task of inducing manufacturers to install electrical equipment. Mr. Young advocated a maximum of autonomy for the Central Electricity Board, and he also made it clear that capital invested in electrical development ought to be allowed to secure an attractive reward. "The benefits which big power developments would bring to Great Britain are so certain and so vast," said Mr. Young, "that I should expect every Englishman to support efforts to bring them about, and most of all those Englishmen who are familiar with the immense modern possibilities of the electrical industry." Mr. Young would certainly agree that the best way to lift England out of the bickerings and the thousand local disputes that have followed the general strike would be to launch great constructive enterprises, and

to unify public opinion in their support. Although this leader is identified as a directing head with some of the largest capitalistic enterprises of America, there is nothing in his suggestions for English treatment of the coal and power questions that could not be brought into practical harmony with the program that the economic thinkers of the Labor Party had already completed. There would of course have to be compromises at some points; but a committee of "big business" leaders of Mr. Young's type, in consultation with the best minds of the English Labor Party, could readily work out a project that men like Lord Reading and Sir Herbert Samuel might safely accept, and recommend to the Baldwin Ministry.

*Time to End  
Bickering  
and Cooperate*

With these great possibilities of increased economic efficiency so clearly available through the achievements of science and invention, it is a sad reproach that men will quarrel and destroy, when they might so easily cooperate and construct. Again we may refer to Mussolini, as having grasped the idea that an impoverished nation can lift itself a long way toward prosperity and happiness by unifying its efforts and laying aside obsolete methods. Looking on from the outside, Mussolini's appeals seem to partake too much of an aggressive Italian nationalism. But a closer study would strengthen the impression that this appeal to national pride is for the purpose of giving heart and hope to Italy, in the face of exceedingly difficult problems. Without high courage and cheerful optimism a penned-up surplus population in the Italian peninsula might turn Bolshevik in short order. Mussolini's policies look toward economic cooperation with Yugoslavia, Rumania, and other neighbors in the Mediterranean regions and the East of Europe. In planning great irrigation works to develop Tripoli, the Mussolini Government is doing its best to solve current problems along the peaceful lines of economic development.

*French  
Paradoxes*

Meanwhile the position of France offers some rather baffling paradoxes. There is no unemployment whatever in Paris, while in London the unemployed number from half a million to a million, and in Berlin probably not less than half a million.



SIGNING THE FRENCH DEBT AGREEMENT AT WASHINGTON

(At the left of the picture is Secretary Mellon of the United States Treasury. Signing, in the center, is the French Ambassador, M. Henri Berenger. At the right is Garrard B. Winston, Under-Secretary of the U. S. Treasury. Standing, in the center, is F. G. Blair of the War Loans Division of the Treasury, and right and left are two Frenchmen, E. Haguenin, Inspector of Finance, and R. Lacour-Gayet, Financial Attache of the French Embassy)

France not only employs all of her own people, but utilizes the labor of Italians and other foreign workers to the extent of perhaps two or three million men. In the ordinary and private sense of the word, prosperity seems to prevail in every nook and corner of France. Yet the franc has continued to decline, and government finance fails to show that stability and strength which the man in the street would presuppose as following inevitably from the prosperity of the people in their private capacities. The protracted struggle through recent months to levy and collect sufficient revenue to meet current budgetary needs has had the effect of upsetting two or three Cabinets and about half a dozen Finance Ministers. The latest Minister of Finance, M. Raoul Peret, seems to have succeeded where his predecessors had failed.

*Adjustment  
of the  
French Debt*

On the last day of April President Coolidge sent to the Senate for its acceptance a statement of the terms of the agreement that had been signed on the previous day for the settlement of the debt of France to the United States. Our Debt Commission and the French authorities under the lead of the Ambassador at Washington, M. Berenger, had been unanimous in their agreement.

Nominally, over a period of sixty-two years this adjustment calls for a somewhat larger total payment than that which was offered by M. Caillaux last year. But the important thing for France is the waiving of interest for the coming five years, and the smallness of the initial yearly payments. As we have urged in these pages in previous months, there were reasons of history and sentiment, as well as of practical statesmanship, for insisting upon an adjustment of the French debt during the present session of Congress. Ratification has yet to be made at Paris and at Washington, but there can be little doubt as to the result, although the viperish Parisian press has continued to be disagreeable and insulting in its allusions to an exceedingly generous Uncle Sam.

*The Tangled  
Finances  
of France*

From the standpoint of our Treasury, it is much better to get something than to get nothing. From the standpoint of France, it is essential to have the question settled in order that the relationship of foreign debts to the whole fiscal situation may be definitely known at a time when the French authorities are grappling with the major problems of stabilizing their currency, balancing their budget, and reducing their

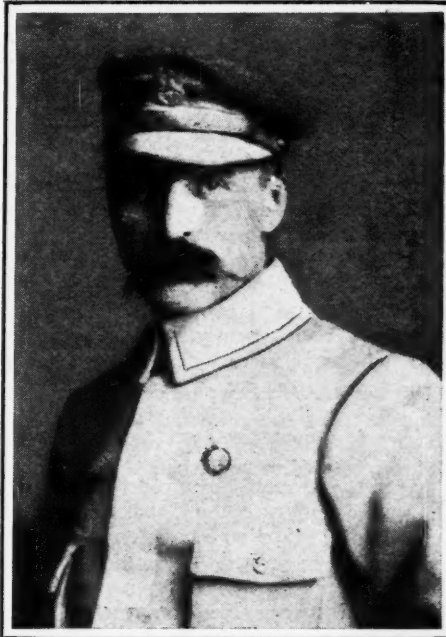


various war obligations to a manageable basis. At the present time, the war debt of France to her own citizens carries interest charges that consume about 60 per cent. of all the taxes that the French people pay. Dealing with the domestic debt is in reality a far greater trouble than adjusting the external debt. France, more than any other country, illustrates the economic and financial absurdity of fighting a great war on borrowed capital, as if the manufacture and explosion of countless millions of shells were to be treated as a remunerative investment of private funds. In time of war, the resources of a country belong to its government, and they ought to be used as freely as are the personal services and sacrifices of the men who fight at the front. German inflation produced dire hardship in the wiping out of the savings and loans of people of moderate means; but it cleared off a burden of war indebtedness which could never have been sustained. The currency and debt problem in France, like the problem of coal and unemployment in England, is fraught with complications and difficulties. But it would yield to heroic treatment under masterful leadership. Briand in France and Baldwin in England are statesmen of rare qualities entitling them to personal confidence. It is perhaps too much for the world to expect that the Frenchman should be a Napoleon or the Englishman a Cromwell.

*Poland  
under a  
Dictator*

The recent troubles of Poland have been mainly economic.

In many ways, the rise of Poland as a republic in the heart of Europe since the Paris Peace Conference has been one of the most remarkable achievements of our day. But it has seemed necessary to maintain a great military establishment; and of late there has been much unemployment, besides severe reverses due to bad crops, the country being mainly agricultural. General Pilsudski has been a foremost figure in Poland during these years of the new regime, and his attempt to set up a dictatorship has doubtless been inspired by zeal for the welfare of his country rather than by personal ambition or mere excess of party strivings. Nothing will be so hard for the Poles as to learn to work together. They are still the victims of that spirit of dissension and insistent disagreement that has been so disastrous to Poland through the centuries. On May 15, after



**MARSHAL JOSEPH PILSUDSKI, POLAND'S NEW MASTER**

(Pilsudski was a revolutionist when Poland was under the Czar, and has always been a turbulent spirit. He supplanted Paderewski in the presidency in 1919, and for three years was in authority. After being deposed in turn, he built up his strength with the army and has now made himself military dictator, although he is nominally War Minister in a new Cabinet.)

sharp fighting in Warsaw during the previous day, the revolutionary army of Marshal Pilsudski was admittedly victorious throughout the country. The President and Prime Minister, being hopelessly defeated, resigned their offices and made overtures for peace. It was mainly against the policies and actions of Premier Witos that the revolution arose. The name of the retiring President is Stanislaw Wojciechowski. An acting President and a new Premier came into office, but they proceeded to function under the dictatorship of General Pilsudski.

*Cuban  
Financial  
Troubles*

The banking troubles in Cuba in the latter part of April drew attention to the difficult position of the cane-sugar producers, although the reports which first came from Havana—of desperate financial complications and a moratorium—were scarcely borne out by the exact facts which came to light later. The major difficulties of the banks in satisfying their debtors were quickly eased by the



energetic action on the Government and the rushing of \$40,000,000 from the United States; but the burden of this virtual one-crop country in producing sugar that would bring only about 2½ cents a pound has been, and continues to be, very real. That price is less than the cost of production for all except the most specially favored concerns. It is not five years, one remembers, since raw sugar was bringing over 20 cents a pound; when the price was suddenly scaled down to 3½ cents the Cuban banks were even harder hit than they have been recently, because of loans made on sugar valued at the abnormally high figures of the post-war boom.

*The Low  
Price of  
Sugar*

Sugar has, for some time now, been one of the "sick" industries of the world—along with the textile trades. The price of Cuban raw sugar has not been so low for twelve years as it has been for the last crop. It is an economic situation in which something must happen with reasonable promptness. There are indications that the old reliable law of supply-and-demand is already working to relieve the troubles of the producers. The abnormally low price of sugar stimulated the consumption in various parts of the world. The trouble in the sugar markets came from the record-breaking crop of 1924-25, followed by an even larger production in the current year—16,600,000 tons, a million tons more than the previous year. But with cheaper sugar the countries that have been using large quantities are beginning to use still more, while other backward nations, that had never before learned to avail themselves of the valuable energy-giving properties of sugar, are beginning to be substantial consumers. To help along the law of supply and demand the Cuban legislature has passed a law arbitrarily curtailing by 10 per cent. the amount of sugar to be ground.

*The Balance  
of Trade  
Against Us*

We have become so accustomed since the war to enormous "favorable" balances in our foreign trade that there is some strangeness now in finding the tide setting rather swiftly the other way. For the quarter ending with last March there was actually a surplus of imports over exports, of \$125,000,000. While the results for the entire year may bring back the balance to the "favorable" column, it can be only a frac-

tion of what we have been accustomed to in recent years. For the nine months ending with March of the current fiscal year, total exports from the United States fell off \$111,000,000; while the imports for the same period increased by \$586,000,000 over the previous year. An examination of the larger changes producing these results shows that they are not in the least due to a swamping of this country with cheaply manufactured European goods—a result which was so often predicted owing to the present high tariff. On the contrary, we are exporting more manufactured articles now than a year ago, chiefly owing to the expanded foreign sales of automobiles, machinery, steel, and chemicals. In this same period, imports of manufactured articles increased only 7 per cent.

*Raw  
Materials to  
Blame*

The great change has come in the smaller quantity of raw materials shipped to Europe. In these past months we have sent but little wheat, for the very good reason that we had none to speak of from our short crop after supplying domestic demands. We have fallen off heavily in cotton exports because of the depression in the British and Continental textile trades. On the other side, our imports of raw materials have shown a substantial increase, partly because of the high price of rubber and the larger quantities of that commodity we must bring in to make tires for the ever-increasing millions of motor-cars. This reversal of trend in our foreign trade is a cloud which has its silver lining. We have all the gold we want, and more. We have debts due us from a dozen foreign nations, on which we expect interest to be paid regularly. The only practical way in which these payments from foreign countries can be transferred to us is in the form of goods that we may import. The alternative, to strike an international balance, is to keep lending more and more of our money abroad—a process which cannot be used indefinitely for this purpose.

*Great Profits  
of Motor  
Concerns*

With the eyes of the business and financial world fixed on the automobile industry, in the attempt to gauge the prosperity or depression that will come in the remaining months of this year, it is remarkable to note that the recently issued quarterly statement of the General Motors Corporation shows a

profit of something like \$40,000,000 for the three months ending March. This is much the largest profit ever made by the General Motors Corporation, which is by far the most important public manufacturer of motor-cars and said to exceed even Mr. Ford's private business in the number of dollars received for its product. After paying an extra dividend on its common stock last January, amounting to over \$25,000,000, this company still has about \$160,000,000 in cash and securities and has, in three months, increased its surplus from \$119,000,000 to \$143,000,000. So much has been said in regard to the new method of selling motor-cars on the instalment plan—which is understood to be the process used with 75 per cent. of all cars marketed—that it is interesting to see what part this method plays in the business of a corporation which comes nearest to occupying, in the field of motor manufacturing, the position held by the United States Steel Corporation in the iron and steel industry. In its balance sheet of March 31, 1926, the General Motors Corporation shows "accounts receivable and trade acceptances less reserve for doubtful accounts" of \$25,862,831, an increase of about \$5,000,000 within three months. With total current assets of \$304,000,000 this item does not loom up so portentously as might have been expected. Against these accounts receivable a reserve has been set of \$1,520,509. The entire assets of this young industrial giant are put at \$716,000,000. Its sales for the three months ending with March amounted to \$235,800,000.

*Motor Car  
Output  
for 1926*

Prosperity has been the rule with manufacturers of automobiles through these first three months of 1926, although the late spring has, for the whole trade, made sales lag behind production. This production has been enormous—970,412 passenger cars and 114,961 trucks. These figures were not attained even in the record year of 1924. If such production were to be maintained through the remainder of the year it would mean nearly four and a half million new passenger cars added to those that were running on the first of the year. Mr. George E. Roberts prints in the National City Bank bulletin a table of the yearly production of motor-cars since 1913:

1913.....	461,500
1914.....	543,679

1915.....	818,618
1916.....	1,525,578
1917.....	1,740,792
1918.....	926,388
1919.....	1,657,652
1920.....	1,799,522
1921.....	1,452,902
1922.....	2,313,558
1923.....	3,503,785
1924.....	3,144,999
1925.....	3,678,328

Mr. Roberts, while not in the least pessimistic as to the future of the motor-car industry, notes from these figures that while the industry was expanded with great rapidity up to 1923, it has scarcely increased its output since that year. Thus there is a strong suggestion that through the remainder of the current year the rate of production of motor-cars will be apt to slacken. As a whole, the industry is able to build nearly five and a half million passenger cars a year. If the country can purchase less than four millions, as this table suggests, it means, obviously, that the gains in the sales of the more successful manufacturers will be at the expense of others who have not been so fortunate in hitting the public's tastes.

*The Railway  
Labor Board  
Abolished*

On May 11 the Senate passed, by an overwhelming majority, the Watson-Parker bill doing away with the present Railway Labor Board and furnishing a formula for the settlement of railroad wage questions by conferences between the managers and the men. The bill provides for adjustment boards, consisting of representatives of the railways and the labor unions to deal with the wage questions in the first instance. If these fail to reach a settlement the President is empowered to appoint a board of mediation, composed of members who have no pecuniary interest in the issues. If this still fails to bring peace the President may appoint an emergency commission to report in thirty days, and the bill prohibits any change in conditions for thirty days after the report is made. The bill was passed by the Senate exactly as it came from the House, and the President, very early in its consideration, had let it be known that he approved of the plan in principle, because it was satisfactory both to the unions and to a majority of the railway managers. This new method of settling railway wages has been severely criticized because, with no prescription to include representatives of

the public in the mediation, it is feared that the railways and their employees will cheerfully arrange for higher wages and then insist on higher rates. Many also consider the act weak because it has no provision for final enforcement of findings.

*Washington  
Notes of May*

The condition of the United States Treasury continues to be favorable. Collections have been large under the new tax law, and, as the end of the fiscal year (June 30) approaches, the estimated surplus of receipts over expenditures does not shrink. Secretary Mellon considers the time favorable for debt reduction rather than for extravagant appropriations. A policy of constructing the necessary buildings in Washington has been adopted, however, upon a plan of moderate annual payments; and reasonable sums will be expended for river and harbor improvements and necessary federal buildings elsewhere than in Washington. The present Congress has worked with unusual efficiency, and its members will face the elections in November with fairly good accounts to give their constituents.

*Politics in  
Iowa and  
Elsewhere*

We commented last month upon various primary elections, particularly as they affected candidacies for the United States Senate. In Indiana, the two present Senators, Watson and Robinson, were re-nominated by the Republicans with ample majorities. Watson's Democratic opponent at the polls was not selected in the primary election, by reason of the fact that none of the numerous candidates had a sufficient lead under the Indiana law. The Iowa contest between Senator Cummins and ex-Senator Brookhart will be determined on June 7. A third Republican candidate has emerged in the person of Howard J. Clark. Mr. Clark is said to be less of a radical anti-Coolidge man than Brookhart, but not nearly so consistent a Republican as Cummins. The Brookhart campaign is one of prejudice, scolding, and reproach. Many things, indeed, are not as they should be, and this is all the more reason for standing by a statesman of fidelity, experience, and high intelligence like Senator Cummins. The Pennsylvania contest, for Mr. Pepper's seat in the Senate, was held on May 18. There were three Republican candidates. Congressman William S. Vare won, with Senator Pepper second and Governor Pinchot third.

*Looking  
Ahead  
to 1928*

We have two years more in which to prepare for a presidential election; yet the politicians are everywhere quietly thinking and planning for 1928. It seems to be the opinion that Mr. Coolidge will be re-nominated, but many things might yet happen to lead him to decide against it. Mr. Coolidge served out only a little more than a year and a half of the unfinished second administration of President Harding. To reelect him would not be generally regarded as violating the accepted principle of a two-term limit. The Democrats of New York are busily at work planning for the presidential nomination of Governor Smith. As a step in that direction, they are insisting that he should run again for the governorship this fall. If elected, he would enter upon his fourth term as Governor next January. Leaders of the New York democracy have also changed their minds about the famous two-thirds rule in Democratic conventions, and are planning to make a fight for the more suitable rule of a simple majority.

*Smith,  
McAdoo,  
and Rules*

It will, however, prove to be uphill work to change the rule in the interest of one candidate at the beginning of the convention. The proper way to change such rules is to postpone application of the new plan for four years, thus taking it out of the fight over individual candidates or between factions. While Mr. William G. McAdoo is not in evidence as a presidential candidate, it may well be considered that (1) his interest in Democratic politics will remain undiminished, that (2) he will not lose touch with his numerous political friends, and that (3) he will be no more ready to permit an abrogation of the two-thirds rule in the interest of Governor Smith than were Brennan and the Tammany men so disposed in 1924 in the interest of Mr. McAdoo. The rule ought, of course, to have been abrogated by the convention of 1924 in order to apply to the selection of a candidate in 1928.

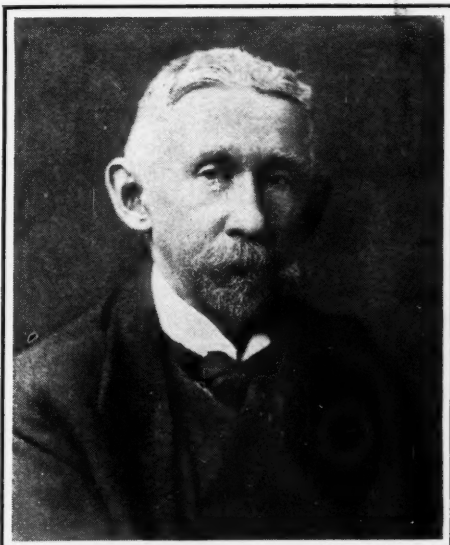
*A Storm  
Abated*

The stupendous agitation against the Eighteenth Amendment and the Volstead act, that had roared with fury during a great part of the month of April, was evidently a planned and concerted artillery barrage. It was followed in May by a period of calm, and was almost if not quite forgotten.

Congressional committees were proceeding to revise prohibition legislation in some matters of detail; while law enforcement throughout the country was directing its attention toward violations on the large and commercial scale, neglecting to attempt an enforcement of the law against individuals who are violating it in a small and non-commercial way. The cannonading of April will have very little effect upon the elections of November. Opponents of prohibition will deserve respectful treatment when they take the clear-cut position of men like President Butler of Columbia University. These men do not advocate petty and ridiculous modifications of the Volstead act while leaving the Eighteenth Amendment untouched. They stand, rather, for a square and honest appeal to the country upon an amendment to the Constitution that would relegate the liquor question to the States and abolish the Eighteenth Amendment. The Democrats of the West and South will not agree with New York and Chicago on the "light wine and beer" proposals. Governor Smith is well-versed in the administrative affairs of the State of New York, but he is probably less acquainted with the national and international problems that are dealt with by the Government at Washington than is any other conspicuous public man of either party. For election purposes, he is deemed available as the man who can certainly carry New York and New Jersey. For purposes of public policy, he is known to the country at large as opposed to prohibition. It is altogether probable that his strength was greater in the convention of 1924 than it will prove to be in that of 1928.

#### Americans of Worth

Elsewhere in this number of the REVIEW we are making reference to the lamented death of several American citizens who had filled public places with distinction and had served the country well. Mr. Oscar Straus had led a successful life that owed its honors to sheer merit. He was a man of exceptional ability, but greater than his talents were his willingness to serve and his sterling qualities of character. Judge Alton B. Parker, who was nominated for the presidency in 1904 as the candidate of the anti-Bryan wing of the Democratic party, was defeated in the election by Theodore Roosevelt. Since that time he had not been active in politics, but had practised



THE LATE JOSEPH PENNELL, ARTIST AND WRITER

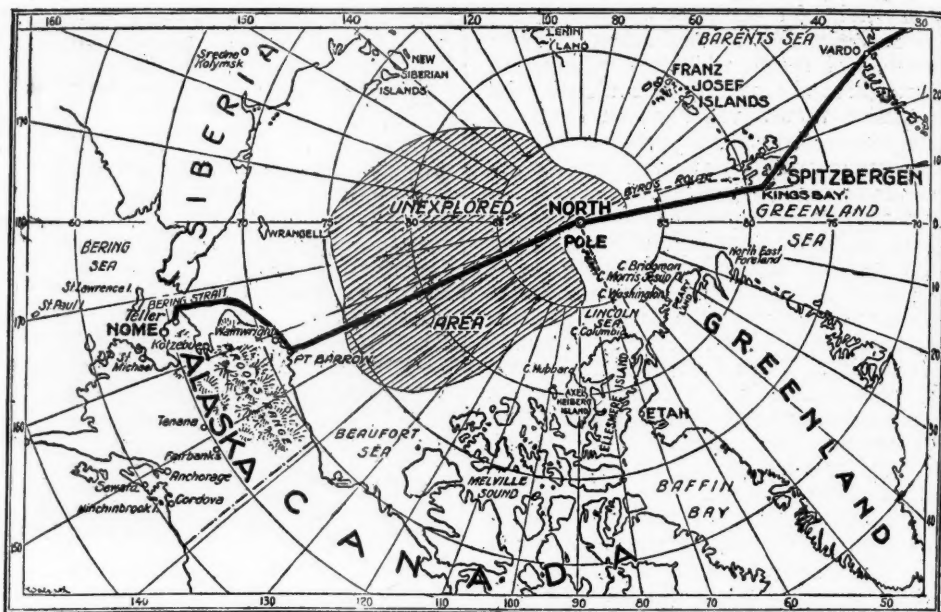
(Mr. Pennell, who was born in Philadelphia, July 4, 1860, devoted his life to art and achieved enduring fame at an early age. He wrote many books that he illustrated)

law and played the part of a great citizen, of high public spirit, admired and respected by men of all parties, creeds, ranks and conditions. Benjamin B. Odell, who served as Governor of New York a quarter-century ago, played a powerful part in the Republican politics of a period now almost forgotten. The militant system of party control that prevailed in the days of Senator Conkling, Senator Platt, and Richard Croker is at an end, and can never be revived. But Governor Odell was a man of force who would have achieved position under any kind of political system. Outside this group of statesmen who died within our month, we should mention here the death of Joseph Pennell, the noted artist.

#### New Methods of Polar Exploration

Admiral Peary reached the North Pole on April 6, 1909, but it was five months later when the world received the news. He was out of touch with civilization for more than a year. A writer in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS at that time, drawing an analogy between the discovery of the Pole and that by Columbus, remarked that "Times have changed" in four centuries; "news traveled at a snail's pace then." Little did that writer imagine that only seventeen years later a voyager would make a journey to the





From the New York Times

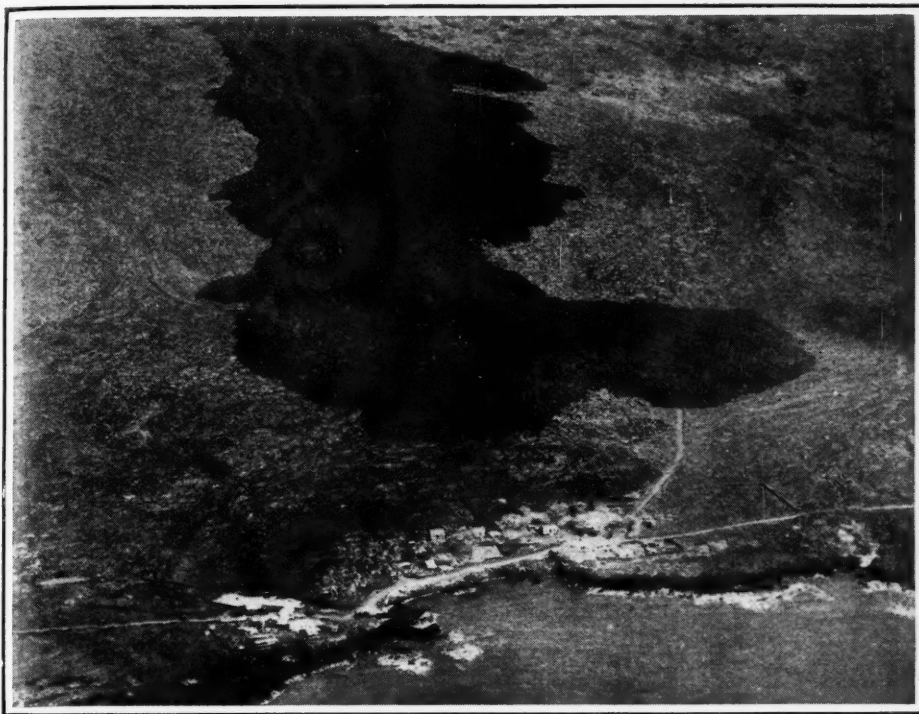
**THE ROUTES FOLLOWED LAST MONTH BY BYRD TO THE POLE, FROM SPITZBERGEN, AND BY AMUNDSEN ACROSS THE POLE TO ALASKA**

North Pole and back during a single day, and that another would circle around the Pole and describe his observations for the newspapers of the next day. When Peary explored, aircraft and radio were not practical things. Twice last month the North Pole was achieved by adventurous explorers, one expedition by airplane and the other by dirigible airship. Our May number outlined the plans that had been so carefully made, and printed pictures of the men and their machines. It remains now to record the facts of their achievement.

*The North Pole* Very early in the morning of May 9, Richard E. Byrd, a young lieutenant-commander in the United States Navy, and his pilot, Floyd Bennett, left the town of Kings Bay, on the island of Spitzbergen, north of Norway. They were flying a Fokker airplane, driven by three powerful motors. By nine o'clock that same morning they had reached the North Pole, the only point on the earth's surface where every direction is south. They made observations without landing, and arrived back at Spitzbergen in

mid-afternoon. Sixteen hours had elapsed for the entire journey of 1600 miles. Peary averaged thirteen miles in twenty-four hours. Two days after the Byrd exploit, Roald Amundsen, Lincoln Ellsworth, and Umberto Nobile—Norwegian, American, and Italian—set out for the Pole from the same village of Kings Bay, using an airship instead of a plane and accompanied by fifteen other men. They reached the Pole in fifteen hours, circled around, and proceeded across the top of the world toward Alaska. Amundsen was able to use his "wireless" equipment, and his achievement was immediately known to the entire world. After riding through a storm off the Alaskan coast, his airship, the *Norge*, was landed at Teller, near Nome, on May 14. The expedition had covered 2700 miles, in seventy-one hours. Peary's observations of ice and nothing but ice around the Pole were confirmed. These recent Arctic expeditions enjoyed many advantages in speed and comfort over old methods; but until explorers in aircraft are able to land and make thorough observations on the ground their mission will not be fully achieved.





THE VOLCANO MAUNA LOA, HAWAII, ACTIVE FOR THE FIRST TIME IN FIVE YEARS, ERUPTS A STREAM OF MOLTEN ROCK THAT DESTROYS THE VILLAGE OF HOOPULO A

(This photograph was taken from an army airplane, fourteen hours before the village was destroyed, on April 18. The crater shot three fountains of burning lava into the air; and rivers of destruction, flowing 8000 feet down the mountainside in four days, buried the village fifty feet deep and transformed the sea into a boiling caldron of steam)

## THE GIST OF A MONTH'S NEWS

FROM APRIL 15 TO MAY 15, 1926

### I. AVIATION IN THE ARCTIC

April 15.—Capt. George Hubert Wilkins (Australian), at Fairbanks, Alaska, begins to transport supplies to Point Barrow, in the airplane *Alaskan*. He expects to explore the "blind spot" in the Arctic.

April 16.—The dirigible airship *Norge* reaches Leningrad, Russia, having left Rome April 10, stopping in England and Norway; the ship is commanded by Col. Umberto Nobile and is operated by the Amundsen-Ellsworth expedition.

April 21.—Capt. Roald Amundsen (Norwegian) and Lincoln Ellsworth (American) arrive at King's Bay, Spitzbergen.

April 29.—Com. Richard E. Byrd's American polar expedition arrives at King's Bay aboard the *Chantier*, having left New York April 5; airplanes are landed immediately and daily reports are received and sent by radio.

May 7.—The *Norge* arrives at King's Bay, having left Leningrad May 5; it is inflated with hydrogen and is the first airship to reach the Arctic.

May 8.—Commander Byrd, in a Fokker airplane named the *Josephine Ford*, leaves Spitzbergen for the North Pole, equipped with landing skis,

sun compass, radio transmission and receiving sets, a camera and a bubble sextant.

May 9.—Commander Byrd, U. S. N., piloted by Floyd Bennet, circles the North Pole in clear weather, confirming Robert E. Peary's observations of April 6, 1909, and returns to Spitzbergen; the entire flight occupied 15½ hours (Peary was out of contact with civilization for 429 days); Peary and his Negro follower, Matt Henson, are the only other men who have reached the Pole, all from the United States.

May 11.—The airship *Norge* flies for the North Pole from King's Bay, with complete scientific equipment and supplies.

May 12.—Roald Amundsen and his seventeen companions in the airship *Norge* fly over and circle around the North Pole, and then head for Alaska.

Capt. George H. Wilkins and Major Thomas G. Lanphier, U. S. A., at Point Barrow, Alaska, prepare to fly over the unexplored region in the Arctic.

May 15.—After 71 hours in flight from Spitzbergen, the dirigible airship *Norge* descends at Teller, near Nome, Alaska, having flown a distance of over 3,000 miles.

## II. THE BRITISH LABOR UPHEAVAL

April 17.—In London, 20,000 women parade as a demonstration against strikes and lockouts.

April 30.—King George proclaims a state of emergency due to a threatened general strike.

May 1.—The General Council of the British Trades Union Congress declares a general strike in sympathy with coal miners, who refuse to work an hour longer per day or for a lower rate of wage (the 1921 minimum) upon expiration of the Government subsidy, which has cost £20,200,000 in nine months; J. H. Thomas, labor leader, says it is "not revolution . . . it is merely a plain economic-industrial dispute" where the worker wants justice.

The Government calls for volunteers for the maintenance of supplies.

May 3.—The London *Daily Mail* (circulation 1,600,000) is obliged to shut down because the pressmen strike in protest against an editorial which says that "a general strike cannot be tolerated by any civilized Government" (compositors, process workers, and telegraphers stand by).

May 4.—The general strike goes into effect, involving miners, railway men, and transport workers.

Premier Baldwin, having moved an address of thanks to the King for his declaration of emergency, is supported by the House of Commons, 308 to 108; Baldwin warns of a "threat to the freedom of our Constitution," and the general strike takes effect.

May 6.—Sir John Simon tells the House of Commons that the general strike is entirely illegal, involving the breaking of contracts.

May 8.—The Government notifies the army that "any action which they may find it necessary to take" will be supported by the Government; transport and food services are manned by middle-class volunteers.

May 12.—The general strike is declared off, after a meeting of labor with Government officials; but the miners remain out; Sir Herbert Samuels proposes renewal of the coal subsidy.

May 13.—Premier Baldwin tells the House of Commons he will not countenance efforts on the part of employers to force reduction of wages or increase in hours. . . . Although the general strike is off, dock-workers, railway men, coal miners, and printers are slow in returning to work.

May 14.—Settlements are made by railway men, general omnibus and underground railway workers and street-car men.

## III. WAR DEBT READJUSTMENTS

April 21.—The Senate ratifies the Italian debt agreement, voting 53 to 34; bonds will amount to \$2,042,000,000 and payments are to be spread over sixty-two years at an average rate of less than 1 per cent., after 1930.

April 23.—French war-debt settlement negotiations are resumed at Washington by Ambassador Berenger.

April 26.—The Senate ratifies the Belgian debt agreement, by vote of 55 to 20.

April 27.—The Senate ratifies settlements with Latvia, Rumania, and Esthonia.

April 29.—A new French refunding agreement is signed at Washington, arranging for payment in sixty-two years of \$6,847,674,104, which is \$627,000,000 more than was offered last year by M. Caillaux;

there is no interest the first five years, and the average rate is 1.58 per cent.

April 30.—In the Senate, the French debt settlement is received from President Coolidge with his endorsement as "fair and just to both Governments"; Senators Reed (Dem., Mo.), Borah (Rep., Idaho), Harrison (Dem., Miss.) and McKellar (Dem., Tenn.) set up a sharp opposition.

May 1.—Jugoslavia signs a debt agreement with the United States, settling for 32 per cent. of the present debt; this Balkan country will pay \$95,177,635 within sixty-two years.

## IV. OTHER ECONOMIC NOTES

April 23.—German foreign trade for March is reported officially as showing a balance of 240,000,000 marks of exports over imports.

Walter C. Teagle of the Standard Oil Company announces a combination of American, British, French, and Dutch interests to exploit oil fields in Iraq.

April 26.—The White Star Line is provisionally sold by P. A. S. Franklin of the International Mercantile Marine Co. to a British syndicate headed by Furness, Withy & Co., Ltd., for \$36,460,000.

April 27.—United States Steel common stock is placed on a 7 per cent. annual dividend basis.

Tax returns in the United States show substantial increases for 1926; income taxes amounted to \$504,141,356.18 for March, an increase of \$65,412,739.94; all taxes from July 1, 1925, to March 31, 1926, totaled \$2,112,870,180.44, an increase of \$183,888,029.45.

May 1.—The League Preparatory Commission for the Economic Conference, after a session at Geneva, adjourns until October to study problems of wages, population, agriculture, industrial production and international trade.

May 2.—American official export figures show that New York State in 1925 shipped to foreign countries goods valued at \$810,416,054, displacing Texas in the lead; Texas exported values of \$758,665,052; Pennsylvania, \$302,869,783; Louisiana, \$265,891,941; California, \$248,235,719; Michigan, \$247,210,727.

May 4.—President Machado of Cuba signs a bill to control sugar production and cut down the present crop by 10 per cent.

May 6.—The annual American Bankers Association executive committee meeting hears a report on motor truck and coach competition and regulation.

## V. PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS

April 15.—Prohibition hearings continue by a Senate committee; President S. H. Church of Carnegie Institute asserts that certain Protestant churches are trying to unify church and state by using prohibition as an entering wedge.

April 19.—Complying with a Senate resolution, the Department of Justice reports that the trial of Senator Burton K. Wheeler for alleged violation of federal statutes cost \$61,312.34 (Wheeler was acquitted).

April 24.—The Senate subcommittee ends public hearings on prohibition, after three weeks of voluminous testimony.

April 26.—The House Immigration Committee reports a bill revising provisions regarding entry and deportation of aliens.

The Joint Committee on Muscle Shoals recommends, in its report, the leasing of Government nitrate and power plants to a group of Southern power companies for fifty years.

April 27.—The House passes an administration dry-law enforcement bill that places the Secretary of the Treasury in direct supervision; the vote is 196 to 4, and the bill goes to the Senate; prohibition employees go under civil service rules.

April 28.—The House, 226 to 16, authorizes erection of a \$30,000 war memorial in France to the Ninety-Third Division, composed of colored troops.

May 4.—The House begins debate on three farm relief measures—Haugen price stabilization bill, Tinchler credit plan, and Curtis-Aswell commodity marketing proposal.

May 5.—In the House, the army five-year aviation building program is approved by unanimous vote; it will cost \$150,000,000 (the naval aviation program, to cost \$85,000,000, has already been passed).

The Senate approves the \$165,000,000 Public Buildings bill, and it goes to conference.

May 6.—The Senate passes a bill raising the salaries of all federal judges, and the measure goes to the House.

May 11.—The Senate votes to abolish the Railroad Labor Board, 69 to 13; the bill, having passed the House, goes to the President.

May 13.—The Senate adopts without roll call the McFadden Branch Banking bill designed to put national banks on a competitive basis with State banks.

## VI. AMERICAN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

April 17.—Governor Smith of New York signs a series of bills recommended by the Baumes anti-crime commission; one measure provides for a new Crime Commission of eleven men to investigate cause and prevention.

April 19.—The Daughters of the American Revolution, in annual Congress, hear President Coolidge, who deplors the failure of American citizens to exercise their voting privilege.

The New York legislature completes passage of a bill providing for a State referendum on prohibition by vote of 87 to 62 in the Assembly.

April 21.—Judge Charles H. Hough, of the United States Circuit Court of Appeals, holds that the Government has no right to seize foreign rum ships more than three miles from shore, despite treaties extending the right to twelve miles.

The New York legislature completes passage of a law intended to drive out medical quacks from practice in the State.

April 23.—The New York legislature ends its 149th annual session after passing much constructive legislation, including the Hughes State reorganization plan, revision of judicial system, elimination of grade crossings, and strengthening the criminal laws.

The Illinois Democratic conven-

tion adopts a plank for amendment of the Volstead act by vote of 867 to 182.

May 1.—The Spanish War pension bill, authorizing \$19,000,000 and increasing allowances to injured, aged, and widows, is signed by the President, who warns Congress against a possible deficit.

President Coolidge addresses 1,000 Boy Scouts in national council at Washington, commending them for their wholesome program; Sir Robert Baden-Powell suggests that peace will come through a "new spirit of mutual good-will, through mutual understandings, sympathy and friendship."

Secretary Jardine, at Pomona, Florida, endorses the Tinchler Credit bill and the Coöperative Marketing bill before the annual conference of the Farmers Union.

May 4.—Governor Smith signs a New York law making it a felony for a drunken automobile driver to injure another person while operating his machine.

Indiana senatorial primaries result in renomination of Senator James E. Watson (Rep.) for the long term and Senator Arthur R. Robinson (Rep.), who is serving by appointment in the late Mr. Ralston's seat; the Democrats nominate Evans Woolen for the short term, but for the regular term no candidate obtains sufficient majority.

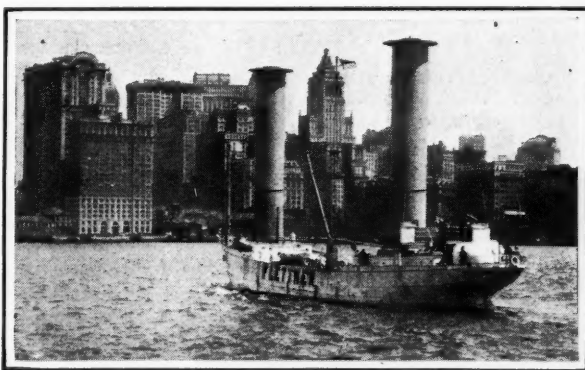
May 6.—Methodist Episcopal Bishops, in annual session are received by President Coolidge.

May 7.—Harry M. Daugherty, former Attorney-General, Col. Thomas W. Miller, Alien Property Custodian under Harding, and John T. King are indicted for conspiracy to defraud the Government.

May 10.—Governor Smith signs a housing bill providing for tenement rebuilding involving eminent domain, tax exemptions, limited dividend companies and a State housing board.

G. W. Alger, is appointed by Governor Smith to investigate the New York Parole Board, Prison Department, and State Reformatories.

May 15.—President Coolidge addresses a sesquicentennial audience at Williamsburg, Va., on necessity for full resumption of State rights and functions, with a contraction of federal authority.



THE FIRST ROTOR SHIP TO CROSS THE OCEAN

(On Sunday, May 9, the *Baden-Baden* arrived in New York harbor, having crossed the Atlantic from the German port of Hamburg. The ship is equipped with an auxiliary engine, but 2000 miles of the journey was made under wind power alone, which revolves the turrets and turns the propellers. This new motive principle is an invention of a German, Anton Flettner. Forty days were required to make the passage. Without wind or in a light breeze the ship may use her engines.)

## VII. IN THE FIELD OF FOREIGN POLITICS

April 17.—Premier Mussolini returns to Rome from a visit to the colony of Tripoli.

At Peking, Premier Chi Teh-yao resigns, taking responsibility for negligence in connection with the Kuominchun *coup d'état*.

The Manitoba legislature passes four out of five bills to tighten liquor-law enforcement.

April 24.—The German Cabinet submits to the Reichstag (pursuant to a plebiscite in which 12,500,000 voters demanded it) a bill for confiscation of property of former rulers.

April 25.—Reza Khan Pehlevi is crowned Shah of Persia.

April 29.—The French Parliament completes passage of the 1926 budget, long overdue, amounting to 37,500,000,000 francs (the budget caused five Finance Ministers to lose office and defeated two Cabinets).

April 30.—Italian police officials round up 450 persons alleged to be leaders of the Mafia, or "Black Hand" organization of Sicily.

May 3.—The Italian Cabinet council approves a bill canceling the note-issuing privilege of Naples and Sicily, confining this right to the Bank of Italy at Rome, and endorses a measure creating a Ministry of Corporations (trade unions).

May 4.—The Nicaragua Government sends troops to Bluefields and Rama, which have been captured by Liberalist rebels.

May 11.—The German Reichstag votes down, 241 to 163 (100 not voting), a Socialist motion for local option.

May 12.—The German Cabinet under Hans Luther falls after a defeat of 176 to 146 in the Reichstag over a decree ordering the German merchant flag (composed of old monarchist colors) to be flown beside the Republican flag on official buildings.

May 13.—Marshal Pilsudski completes a Polish *coup d'état*, capturing Warsaw, ousting President Wojciechowski and Premier Witos, and assuming a dictatorship, supported by Generals Haller and Sikorski.

Dr. W. W. Yen forms a new Peking Cabinet; Alfred Sze is named as Foreign Minister though Yen holds the post temporarily; Dr. V. K. Wellington Koo becomes Minister of Finance, and Yang Wen-Kai is Minister of Commerce.

May 15.—The temporary Polish President, M. Maciej Rataj (Speaker of the Diet), requests Prof. Edmund Bartel, of Lemberg University, to form a new Cabinet; some 2000 persons were killed during the revolt, 200 in fighting at Warsaw, where there were over 1000 casualties.

The Yugoslav Cabinet of Premier Ouzonovitch (organized April 30) is defeated on a question of investigating corruption in the Government.

## VIII. INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

April 17.—Secretary of State Kellogg proposes to Chilean and Peruvian diplomats that Tacna-Arica either be established as a separate neutralized state or sold to a third power (Bolivia).

April 19.—Secretary Kellogg sends a note of refusal by the United States to attend a conference of World Court signatory nations at Geneva on September 1 regarding American reservations.

April 22.—Ex-Secretary Hughes addresses the American Society of International Law as president on the possibility of following up Navy reductions effected by the Washington Conference through limiting auxiliary naval craft.

April 24.—German and Russian delegates sign a treaty of reciprocal neutrality in event of attack.

April 26.—The Mexican-American Special Claims Commission decides the Santa Ysabel case against the United States; the claims cover massacre of fifteen mining engineers in 1916; the commission will reassemble at Tampico September 2.

April 28.—President Coolidge informs President Siles of Bolivia that Tacna-Arica negotiations must be confined to Chile and Peru.

May 5.—The British-American prohibition correspondence granting permission to United States ships to enter Bahama waters is published.

May 10.—A special commission meets at Geneva to study reconstruction of the League Council.

## IX. MATTERS OF EDUCATIONAL OR SCIENTIFIC INTEREST

April 17.—A magazine for the blind (*American Review for the Blind*) is published at Paris and New York.

April 25.—The American Association of University Professors suggests that students' participation in intercollegiate athletics be limited to one year or that football be held to a four-game season.

Rev. Dr. Henry Sloane Coffin, of Madison Avenue Presbyterian Church, New York, is elected as president of Union Theological Seminary.

April 26.—The National Academy of Sciences hears Dr. E. W. Brown of Yale expound his theory that the earth, composed largely of dunite with an iron core, varies twelve feet in diameter in periods of three or four years.

April 27.—Dr. A. F. Blakeslee reports to the National Academy of Sciences that male and female uncompleted one-celled organisms present striking chemical differences, the female being richer in acid and oxidizing power; his study is based on 100 different types of bread molds.

April 28.—John D. Rockefeller, Jr., withdraws his offer of \$10,000,000 to the Egyptian Government for archeological research.

April 30.—The Radio Corporation of America and the Marconi Wireless Co. inaugurate a commercial radio picture service between London and New York, transmitting photographs in less than an hour.

May 13.—The first air mail from Dallas, Texas, to New York is delivered under a newly established service.

## X. OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

April 15.—A new cold weather record for this date is set at New York when the thermometer stands at 39, two degrees lower than in 1885 (on April 19, 1875, the temperature was 21).

April 17.—James Louis Garvin, editor of *London Observer*, is appointed editor of *Encyclopædia Britannica*.

April 18.—On Hawaii Island, the village of Hoopuloa is destroyed by lava from the volcano Mauna Loa.



April 19.—Pope Pius publishes his letter of February 2 to Mexican Catholics, in which he bans formation of a Catholic political party or attachment to political organizations; the Pope urges exercise of civic rights and duties, however.

April 20.—The Associated Press hears Secretary Kellogg outline American foreign policies.

April 21.—The city of Rome celebrates its 2679th birthday, coincident with demonstrations observing Colonial Day and Labor Day.

April 25.—The daylight saving system goes into effect for the summer in several States and many cities.

April 28.—Dean Cornwell's water color sketch of David Street in Jerusalem is accepted by the British Royal Academy—a signal honor to this American.

May 3.—Pulitzer prizes in letters for 1925 are awarded to Sinclair Lewis for "Arrowsmith," to George Kelly for the drama "Craig's Wife," to Edward Channing for history, to Harvey Cushing for biography, and to Amy Lowell for verse.

May 4.—Rev. Dr. John Thomson Dallas is consecrated Bishop of New Hampshire.

May 5.—Sinclair Lewis declines the Pulitzer prize for his novel on the ground that "all prizes, like all titles, are dangerous."

May 6.—The National Institute of Social Sciences awards gold medals to Clarence H. Mackay, the Rev. Dr. S. Parkes Cadman, Mrs. Mary Schenck Woolman, and Dr. Stephen Tyng Mather.

May 7.—At Princeton University, 731 students vote for repeal of the prohibition amendment, 505 for permitting light wines and beer, and 175 for the law as it now stands.

May 9.—The *Baden-Baden*, first "rotor" ship (wind driven, but without sails) to visit America, arrives at New York from Hamburg.

May 10.—The National Conference on International Problems and Relations meets at Briarcliff Manor, N. Y., to discuss disarmament.

## XI. OBITUARY RECORD

April 15.—E. Harold Spender, British author and lecturer, 61. . . . Binger Hermann, Oregon politician, 83. . . . Rudolph C. Siegling, publisher, of Charleston, S. C., 39.

April 16.—John Ellingwood Donnell Trask, Philadelphia Exposition fine arts director, 55.

April 17.—Prince Augusto Torlonia, of Rome, 71. . . . Col. G. Souldard Turner, U. S. A., retired, military text-book writer. . . . John K. Mumford, journalist, 62.

April 18.—Frederick R. Fenton, Chicago banker. . . . Rear Admiral Alexandrino Alencar, Brazilian Cabinet Minister.

April 19.—Sir Squire Bancroft, famous British actor-manager, 84. . . . The Rev. Dr. Alfred Plummer, authority on English Church history, 85. . . . Dr. Karl Wenle, German ethnologist.

April 20.—Ogden T. McClurg, Chicago publisher, 46. . . . Judge E. J. Regan, Georgia politician. . . . Lovat Fraser, British journalist, 54.

April 21.—Sir Henry Mance, inventor of heliograph, 86.

April 22.—Dr. Lee Masten Francis, Buffalo eye specialist, 48. . . . Vice Adm. Sir John Franklin Parry, noted British hydrographer, 62.

April 23.—Joseph Pennell, noted illustrator, etcher, and author, 66. . . . Luke F. Parsons, last of the John Brown band of Kansas Free Staters, 93. . . . Stanislaus V. Henkels, Philadelphia auctioneer, 73.

April 24.—Brig. Gen. Sir Alexander Bertram, of Canada, 72. . . . Prince Hkun Hsang Au, of Burma, 56.

April 25.—Ellen Key, Swedish author, 76. . . . Prince Yi Wang, former Emperor of Korea. . . . Mgr. Juan Abel Bazan y Bustos, Bishop of Parana, Entre Rios, Argentina, 59.

April 26.—Elijah Robinson Kennedy, New York civic leader, 81. . . . Henry Clay, former Philadelphia official, 76.

April 27.—Robert B. Dula, tobacco company executive, 77. . . . Rev. Clara Watson, nationally known spiritualist, 80.

April 28.—Roger B. Wood, lawyer. . . . Jeffreys Lewis, actress, 69. . . . Austen H. Stafford, of Jamestown, N. Y., former national president of Union Veteran Legion, 82. . . . Field Marshal Viscount Kageakira Kawamura, Japanese general in Russian war, 76.

April 29.—William Potter, of Philadelphia, former Minister to Italy, 74. . . . Christopher H. Shearer, landscape artist, of Pennsylvania, 80.

April 30.—Capt. Norman W. Terry, yacht racer, 84. . . . Dr. Ignacio Lucas Albarracin, noted Argentine lawyer and humanitarian, 76.

May 1.—Oliver Bishop Harriman, American Legation Secretary at Copenhagen, 39. . . . Prof. George B. Wharen, North Dakota combustion engineer, 42.

May 2.—Edmond Pennington, of Minneapolis, railway president, 77. . . . William Canton, British author and journalist, 81.

May 3.—Oscar Solomon Straus, noted diplomat and public official under six Presidents, 75. . . . Dr. William D. Melton, president of University of South Carolina, 57. . . . Prince Victor Napoleon, French pretender, 64.

May 4.—Eugene T. Pearl, inventor, of Paterson, N. J., 76. . . . Dr. Albert D. Watson, psychic investigator, 67. . . . Henry William Eaton, insurance executive, 75.

May 7.—Howard Van Doren Shaw, noted Chicago architect, 57. . . . Prof. Sidney Irving Smith, Yale anatomist, 83. . . . Dr. Edward Hickling Bradford, famous Harvard surgeon, 77. . . . Henry Woolf, well-known Rhode Island social worker, 50. . . . Rev. James Mann Campbell, Congregationalist author and editor, of California, 86. . . . Sloane Gordon, political writer, 55.

May 8.—Sarah Bates Lawrence, philanthropist, 79.

May 9.—Benjamin Barker Odell (Rep.), former Governor of New York, 72. . . . Dr. Byron Clary Darling, roentgenologist, 50. . . . Rev. W. A. Coolidge, author and Alpinist, 75.

May 10.—Alton Brooks Parker, former Chief Judge of New York Court of Appeals and Democratic presidential nominee in 1904, 73. . . . Carl Hering, well-known Philadelphia physicist, 66.

May 11.—Joseph Mallaby Dent, British publisher and archaeologist, 77.

May 13.—John T. King, recently Republican national committeeman from Connecticut, 51.

# THE RECORD OF A MONTH IN CARTOONS



THE SPIRIT OF THE 1926 CAMPAIGN

From the *News* (Cleveland, O.)



GETTING OUT THE OLD TOGS

From the *Tribune* (Sioux City, Ia.)



MEANWHILE THE FARMER MAY STARVE

From the *Citizen* (Brooklyn, N. Y.)



VISITORS' DAY AT THE NORTH POLE

From the Chronicle (San Francisco, Cal.)

RARELY has a session of Congress, in recent years at least, attracted so little comment in cartoons as the one now drawing to a close. Possible Government aid for Western farmers remains the principal item of unfinished business at Washington;



THE CONGRESSIONAL DOCTOR WILL FIND SOME KIND OF MEDICINE

From the Evening World © (New York)



THE MAN WHO WILL ELECT THE NEXT PRESIDENT

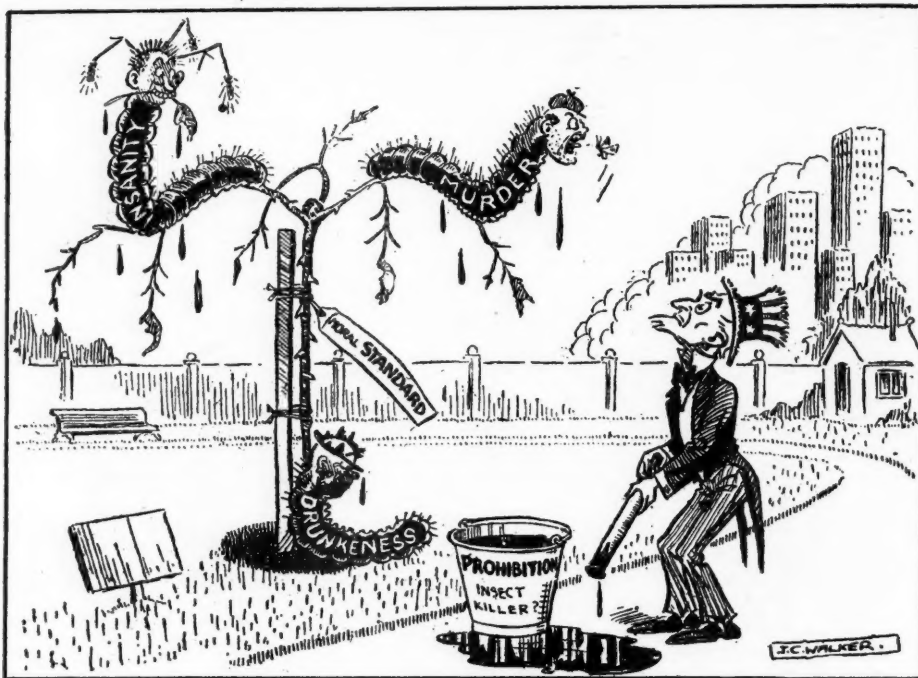
From the Tribune © (Chicago, Ill.)

and judging by current cartoons the farmers' agitation may have no larger immediate result than had the recent prohibition inquiry.



MISSED! THE REAL PROHIBITION PROBLEM REMAINS UNTOUCHED

From the Evening Post (New York)



#### BLIGHTERS THAT THRIVE ON PROHIBITION DOPE

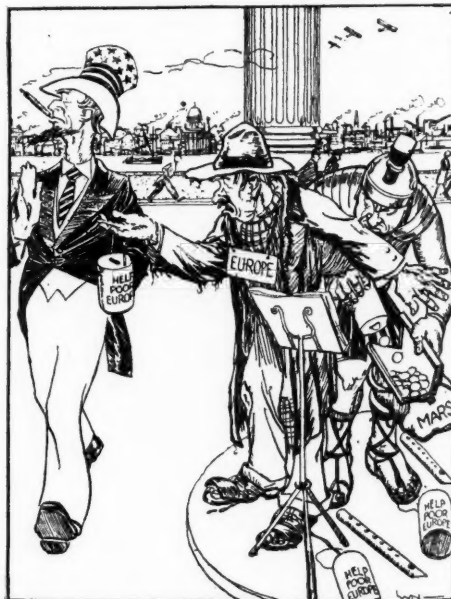
From the *Evening Express* (Cardiff, Wales)



#### RUSSIA'S NEIGHBORLY INTEREST

From the *Herald Tribune* (New York)

[Our readers will be glad to know that the cartoonist "Ding"—J. N. Darling—has returned to his desk, after a year's illness and convalescence.]



#### WHY UNCLE SAM TURNS A DEAF EAR!

UNCLE SAM: "Nix on the philanthropy stunt. I'm as open-handed as any man, but that partner of yours gets my goat—and too much of your cash."

From the *Bulletin* (Glasgow, Scotland)





THE TYRANNY OF FINANCIAL FORCE:  
"AMERICAN LIBERTY"

From *Le Rire* (Paris, France)

The French cartoon reproduced above was published while negotiations were in progress between the new French Ambassador and the American Secretary of the Treasury, to reach a settlement of France's war debt. On April 29 an agreement was signed at Washington, under which France agrees to repay the debt of four billion dollars. Thus Uncle Sam ultimately will collect the French debt with interest. Actually, however, half the present debt of four billions, if bearing interest at the rate which our Government pays on money

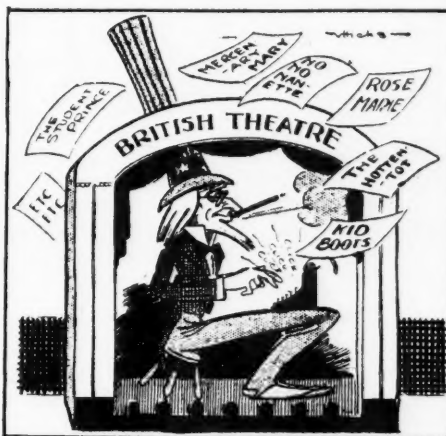


AMERICA'S AIRCRAFT PROGRAM

"Better two and twenty hundred birds in the air than one [the disarmament conference] in the hand."

From *De Amsterdammer* (Amsterdam, Holland)

borrowed from American investors, would yield the same amount. America is therefore, in effect, canceling one-half of the French debt.



THE MAN IN POSSESSION

From *Everybody's Weekly* (London, England)



THE ITALIAN SHADOW ON THE WALL

From *Lachen Links* (Berlin, Germany)

Impressions of Mussolini, of Fascism, and of the new Italy, by an experienced American observer recently returned from Rome, will be found in the article by Mr. Frank H. Simonds, on page 629.



CARRYING THE WORLD ON HIS SHOULDERS

From the *Times* (Los Angeles, Cal.)



THE TWO LIONS

From *Il Travaso* (Rome)

[The British Lion and Mussolini, in Africa]



A NEW COLOSSUS AT RHODES

From the *Item* (New Orleans, La.)



AFTER INTERNAL TRIUMPH, FASCISMO TURNS ITS ATTENTION TO THE OUTER WORLD

From *Il 420* (Rome, Italy)

# WHAT NEW ENGLAND IS DOING

BY THOMAS NIXON CARVER

(Professor of Political Economy, Harvard University)

"**B**BROWN bread and the Gospel make a feast," is a saying that could have originated nowhere except in New England. It may savor somewhat of an austere religion, but it also helps to explain why New England supports more people and, all things considered, supports its people on a higher scale than any other section of the same size in the United States.

The population per square mile in Massachusetts is 479.2; in Connecticut, 286.4; and in Rhode Island 566.4. In New York it is only 217.9, in Pennsylvania only 194.5, and in Illinois only 115.7. The per capita wealth in New England in 1922 was \$3186; for the rest of the country it was only \$2918. The savings deposits for New England in 1924 were \$443 per capita, as against \$186 for the rest of the country. The industries of New England (we will omit agriculture for the moment) produced \$971 per capita, as against \$594 for the United States as a whole.

## *Production Keeps Ahead of Consumption*

But what have brown bread and the Gospel to do with all this? Plain living and high thinking have a great deal to do with it, and also with a great many other good things. It has long been the tradition among New England families that every family should live within its income and add something to the estate which it inherited. Where that is the established custom there is progress of one kind or another. As the late Edward Van Dyke Robinson expressed it, "Wherever production exceeds consumption, there is progress; where consumption exceeds production, there is retrogression." In New England, each generation has left the country richer than it found it.

The first generation of New Englanders, however, did not find much waiting for them. Geographically it is the poorest

section of the country. Its soil is poor, except in a few small spots, and is generally difficult to cultivate because of the stones and the hills. It contains no minerals of importance, unless rock is called an important mineral. There is clay enough to supply the raw material for brick-making; there is plenty of sand for the making of mortar or cement, but there is very little limestone. Literally, there is no real mining industry in New England.

## *Natural Resources*

One physical resource, however, the New Englanders were able to develop, and that was water power. But this early development was the result of the energy and mental alertness of the people rather than of superior advantages. There are higher mountains and larger streams to the south and west, but no others were so effectively harnessed as those in New England. However, water power is a minor factor in the present industrial life of New England. Southern New England, where there is very little water power, has outstripped northern New England, where water power is abundant. The advantage of getting coal by water transportation and being accessible to markets more than compensates for the lack of water power.

The climate in this section is not so bad as it might be, especially the summer climate, and the New England autumns cannot be beaten anywhere. But it has never rivaled California or Florida in its appeal to climate seekers. No large percentage of New England's dense population chose to live here because of the climate. There used to be forests in New England, but there are not enough now to supply the needs of the population, and lumber has to be imported.

Why, then, do so many people live in New England? Some, perhaps, because

they were born here; but trains run from as well as toward New England, and any one who wants to can get away. Besides, New England continues to attract immigrants. People live here in such large numbers, partly at least, because they can make a living, and partly because they like the kind of living that New England affords. The question, what kind of a living does a country afford, is a very important one.

#### *A Thousand Public Libraries*

Let me refer again to the brown-bread-and-Gospel diet. It suggests intellectual as well as material wants. New England has always led and still leads the rest of the country in the means of satisfying intellectual wants. Let us consider, first, certain things that can be measured or counted—books for example. Maine has 119 libraries, New Hampshire 153, Vermont 115, Connecticut 155, Rhode Island 76, and Massachusetts 441, or a total of 1059 for New England.

In Massachusetts there is no town without a public library. It is literally true that every person in this State is within easy walking distance of a public library. According to the United States Bureau of Education, the public and society libraries of Massachusetts (exclusive of school, college, and university libraries) contained 8,256,884 volumes. New York, the nearest rival, with a population of 10,385,227 as against Massachusetts' 3,852,356, had 8,107,245 volumes in its public and society libraries. During 1925 the circulation of the Massachusetts public libraries alone was 21,400,000 volumes, or five for every man, woman, and child in the State. These sources of intellectual food help to make up the kind of living that Massachusetts affords her people.

#### *Education—Tradition*

From the founding of Harvard College in 1636 down to the present day, New England's leadership in higher education has scarcely been questioned. Thirty-eight institutions, attended by more than 50,000 students, employing 5500 faculty members—one teacher to every nine students—with a total endowment of more than \$200,000,000, minister to the higher intellectual needs of New England people. In addition to these there are something like 350 preparatory schools and a magnificent system of free public schools. Not only the

colleges and universities but the preparatory schools draw students from the entire country. Since the tuition fees pay only a fraction of the total expense of teaching these students, it appears that New England is making a heavy financial contribution to the education of the entire country.

Every section of the country has, of course, its historic spots, associated with the heroism or the intellectual achievements of past generations. New England has more than her share of such places, and New England people have shown their appreciation by marking with appropriate monuments the homes of the great men and women of the past and the spots where important events occurred.

The libraries, the educational institutions, and the historic places are mentioned first among the reasons why so many people live in New England, for a special purpose. New England people have been worried for a long time over the food situation. The greater part of its food supply has to be shipped from the West, and the freight has to be added to the cost. This naturally makes food a little more expensive in New England than in most other parts of the country. Fear has often been expressed that the lure of cheaper food would attract the laboring population away from New England. Men do not live by bread alone even in the United States. The people whom New England desires to attract are precisely those who care for libraries, schools, historic traditions, and other things that appeal to the intellectual side of human nature. But she need not fear that other things will not be added unto her, if she seeks these things first. In fact it is largely because the intellectual appetite has been stimulated and fed in the past that the material wealth of New England has grown as it has. And this is another reason for mentioning intellectual interests first. They came before and not after the accumulation of material wealth.

#### *Adventurings of the Whalemen*

Least any one should get the impression that New England people have been mere bookworms or that they have avoided adventurous strenuousness, let me mention next that the whaling and fishing industries of the United States reached their first and highest development in New England. It would be difficult to imagine anything either in the way of business enterprise or sport



that calls for greater hardihood or more intrepid courage than whaling. I used to be thrilled by reading how Davy Crockett—perhaps the most intrepid of all western pioneers—would kill a bear with a bowie knife. I still have the highest admiration for that sort of courage, but if I were compelled to choose between stabbing a bear and tackling a 100-ton whale in his own element, armed only with harpoon and lance, a thousand miles horizontally and five miles perpendicularly from the nearest land, I think I should choose the bear, especially if I had several good dogs to attract his attention.

To find a real parallel to the hardihood of the old New England whalemén, I think we shall have to go back to our prehistoric ancestors who hunted the cave bear, the saber-toothed tiger, and the mastodon. The demoniac energy of Melville's *Captain Ahab* may have been exceptional among that tribe, but all of them must have possessed an energy and a courage that would rank them with the heroes of the "Iliad," even though many were praying deacons and some were peace-loving Quakers.

New England whaling seems to have started at Nantucket, but before it reached the height of its development the center had shifted to New Bedford. The "golden age" of whaling was between 1825 and 1860, and during the whole of this period New Bedford kept the lead. In 1848 it was estimated that there were over \$70,000,000 invested in the industry and 70,000 persons were deriving their subsistence from it. In 1846 there were 736 American vessels hunting for whales. The largest income received by American whalemén in any one year was in 1854, when they netted \$10,802,594. Four hundred islands in the Pacific were discovered and named by American whalemén.

By 1913 the total whaling fleet in America had dwindled to 34 vessels, of which 20 hailed from New Bedford, 11 from San Francisco, 2 from Provincetown, and 1 from Stamford. The reasons for the decline of the whaling industry are, first, the introduction of kerosene, which is a cheaper substitute for whale oil, and, second, the substitution of flexible strips of steel for whalebone in the umbrella and corset industries. The growth of the cotton industry in New Bedford from 1850 to 1875 absorbed a great deal of the capital that was being withdrawn from whaling.

### *The Fisheries and the Food Problem*

Even fishing for cod in the stormy North Atlantic is no child's play. Anyone who will study the monument at Gloucester to the fishermen who have lost their lives at sea, will be convinced of that. From the earliest times New Englanders have been harvesting the sea and forcing the unconquerable ocean to pay tribute to these bookish and pious people.

The fisheries of New England continue to yield large quantities of valuable food. The following table shows the product in pounds and dollars from 1880 to 1919:

Calendar year	Pounds	Dollars
1880.....	.....	12,503,021
1887.....	520,213,541	9,913,003
1888.....	572,907,858	9,860,011
1889.....	653,170,040	10,550,641
1898.....	393,457,906	9,682,290
1902.....	534,975,447	12,406,284
1905.....	480,283,604	14,184,205
1908.....	530,029,000	15,139,000
1919.....	467,339,870	19,838,657

In 1919 the New England States employed 978 vessels and 30,767 persons in the fisheries. The capital invested was \$40,597,097. In 1924 the value of the products landed at the three ports of Boston, Gloucester, and Portland (Maine) was \$6,992,952.

These figures have an important bearing on New England's ever-present food problem. She is undoubtedly at a disadvantage in such staple articles as wheat, corn, pork, and beef; but she has a corresponding advantage in her rich supplies of sea food. For two hundred years New Englanders have been harvesting the sea, and the sea shows no sign of exhaustion. It is true that the fishermen have in the main merely gathered in the tidbits—the few choice varieties of food fishes. There is a possibility of great expansion here. Practically every fish that swims in these northern waters is good to eat. Some of the most abundant and easily obtained varieties have hitherto been rejected simply because we were too fastidious to eat them. We have much to learn from the Japanese, the Belgians, the Dutch, the Italians, and other people who have been forced to harvest the sea more carefully. The population that lives along the New England seacoast will, of course, always have the advantage over the population of the interior in being able to get its supply of fish fresher and more abundantly.

*Farm Conditions Suited to Vegetables*

But we cannot live on fish alone. The habits of our race prescribe wheat bread, beef, mutton, pork, and a great variety of fresh vegetables as necessities; and unless there is a greater revolution in personal habits than any of us has a right to expect, we shall continue to live mainly on these things.

As to wheat, it will never, I think, be advisable to encourage its growth in New England. Wheat is a highly concentrated form of food, containing little water, and it stands transportation particularly well, being less likely to spoil in transit than almost any kind of food; therefore wheat bread need not cost the New Englanders much more than it costs the Westerners.

Again, wheat is a crop which does not respond well to intensive cultivation. It seems, on the whole, better suited to extensive than to intensive farming. It is the kind of crop which can be grown and harvested mainly by machinery. This seems to require fairly large areas. It can, therefore, be more economically produced on the Great Plains than on the small farms of New England.

In the third place, wheat is one of the best dry-land crops known to man. More than half the wheat in the world is grown on what would ordinarily be called dry land—that is, on land with less rainfall than is necessary to grow corn or potatoes or other heavy yielding crops. From the standpoint of world economy, it is better that these dry lands should be utilized for growing wheat than that they should lie idle, as would be necessary if the densely populated areas should grow their own wheat.

What is said of wheat applies, though with somewhat lessened force, to all the other grains. Even in the case of corn, while it is slightly more bulky than wheat and does not stand transportation nearly so well, and while it responds to intensive cultivation much better than wheat and requires more moisture, it is probable that New England will find it more advantageous to get a part of its corn from the West than to try to grow it.

As to sugar, which is becoming one of the most valuable of all food products, it is probably useless to try to grow it in New England. In the first place, cane cannot be grown in this climate. In the second place, we have the advantage of cheap

water transportation from Cuba and other cane-producing areas. As to sugar beets, while they can probably be grown in this climate, they cannot be grown so advantageously as in the irrigated regions of the West. The percentage of sugar in the beet seems to vary with the amount of sunlight during the growing season. Other things equal, the fewer cloudy days the more sugar. Those sections where there is little rain or cloudy weather in the summer time, but where moisture is supplied by irrigation, will have a permanent advantage over New England in the production of sugar beets. Again, the manufactured product, sugar, is highly concentrated and stands transportation well.

In the main, therefore, New England agriculture should confine itself to the production of bulky and perishable products which do not stand transportation so well. If we depend upon outside areas for these products, we shall have to pay a high price in order to cover the transportation costs. Again, these are the products which respond most vigorously to intensive cultivation. The potato, the parsnip, the carrot, the turnip, the onion, the tomato, and the cucumber may be made to yield enormous crops on small areas under intensive cultivation, whereas wheat cannot. These are economical sources of food if they can be consumed near the source of production, so as to economize in transportation costs. Incidentally, Aroostook County, Maine, is the greatest potato region of equal size in the country. Its average yield is higher than that of any other section.

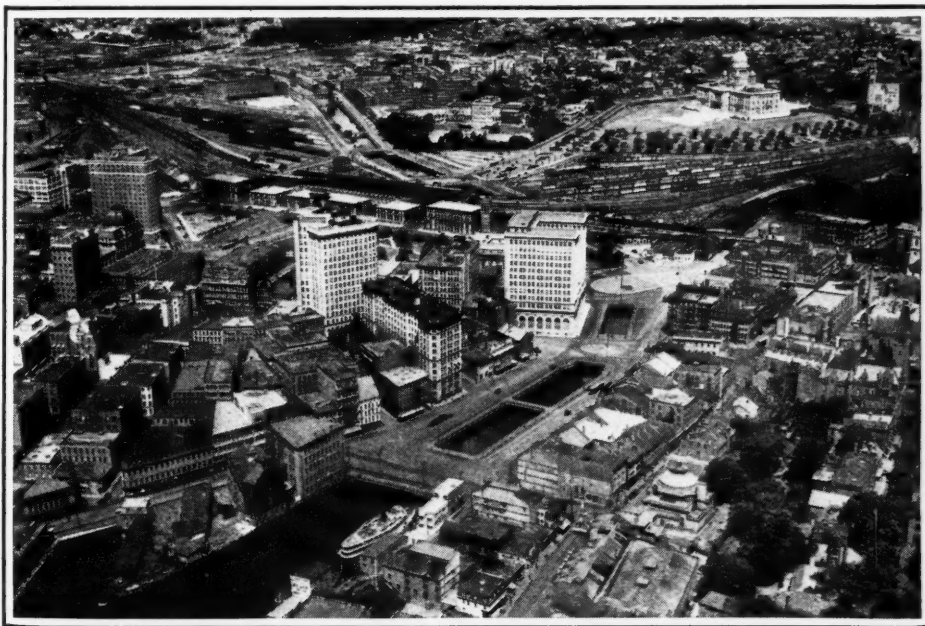
In the matter of fresh vegetables, New England does not suffer in comparison with any other section. She has furnished the most successful plant breeders of the country. Even Burbank began his career in New England, but he had a long and distinguished line of predecessors and some remarkably successful contemporaries, though they were less famous than himself. Such products as the Concord grape, the Baldwin apple, and the Rhode Island greening do not suffer in comparison with any of his achievements. While the Boston market is supplied with winter vegetables from California and Florida, the Boston greenhouse men are supplying discriminating consumers in distant parts of the country with the more delicate products of their enterprise.

All things considered, therefore, the food



HARTFORD, THE CAPITAL OF CONNECTICUT

(The State Capitol, at the left, built of white marble and completed in 1878, occupies a commanding eminence in Bushnell Park. Toward the extreme right of the picture is Travelers Tower, 525 feet high, the tallest building in New England, a reminder that Hartford is the home of thirty-eight insurance companies. The Connecticut River is navigable as far as Hartford, making it a port though fifty miles from Long Island Sound)



PROVIDENCE, THE CAPITAL OF RHODE ISLAND

(The State Capitol is in the upper right corner of the picture. Toward the left is the public square, around which are the Union Station, some public buildings, and the city's new skyscraper hotel, and from which extend the main thoroughfares. In the center of the picture are several new office-buildings. Providence River, which shows in the foreground, is really an arm of Narragansett Bay. Providence is the second city of New England in population and importance. It is noted for its manufactures of silverware and jewelry, tools, and cotton and woolen goods)

situation in New England is not so bad as it is sometimes pictured. New England will doubtless continue to import those products that stand transportation well, but this is partly counterbalanced by the superiority of her sea food and the products of her plant breeders and greenhouse men.

Before growing pessimistic over the general agricultural situation in New England, we should remember that agriculture never was strictly a self-supporting industry in these States. Before the rise of the factories and the commercial cities, most New Englanders lived in the country and carried on agriculture to a certain extent; but even in those early times the farm homes were also miniature factories, turning out a great variety of products, including textiles, clocks, hardware, whips, chairs, boots and shoes, and rope, besides a great multitude of minor articles—ax handles, hames, horse collars and a miscellaneous assortment of goods commonly known as "Yankee notions." Since the development of the factory system, with its power-driven machinery, most of these subsidiary industries have been removed from the farms, and many of the farms thereafter ceased to be self-supporting; in fact only the best of them are self-supporting to-day.

However, the so-called abandoned land does not go out of use altogether. It is self-forested and begins producing a very important New England crop, namely, trees. New England, with her dense population, requires a certain amount of firewood and a vast amount of lumber for boxes of various kinds in which to ship out her manufactured products. Before the days of steel ships, there was a great deal of shipbuilding along the New England coast, and this industry consumed a considerable amount of lumber.

#### *Beginnings and Growth of Cotton Manufacturing*

"Raw cotton was imported into New England from the West Indies before the middle of the seventeenth century, and small importations continued during the following hundred and fifty years. This material was spun into yarn and also used for other purposes. But it was not till the last decade of the eighteenth century that the manufacture of cotton was begun on a

considerable scale in the United States."<sup>(1)</sup>

The first successful cotton mill in the United States was started in Rhode Island in 1790. During the next fifteen years the progress was slow. The first great difficulty was that of getting raw material, but after 1793 the cotton gin (a New England invention, by the way) relieved that difficulty. The industry was, in the strictest possible sense, an infant industry, and had to meet the competition of the more experienced British manufacturers. More important than this were the facts that labor found many other opportunities for employment and much of the capital was already invested in whaling, shipping, and foreign commerce. The embargoes and other obstacles to international trade growing out of the Napoleonic wars gave a temporary advantage to American manufacturers, and some of the capital that had been accumulated in other enterprises began to seek investment in the cotton mills of New England.

#### *Fortunes of the Industry*

The number of spindles in the United States increased from 4500 in 1805 to 800,000 in 1825. The following table shows the growth of the industry for the three ten-year periods ending in 1860, the year before the Civil War:

#### COTTON MANUFACTURES, 1831-1860

	Establishments	Cotton used (pounds)	Spindles	Value of Product
1831 .....	795	77,800,000	1,200,000	\$ 32,000,000
1840 .....	1,240	113,100,000	2,300,000	46,400,000
1850 .....	1,094	276,100,000	3,600,000	61,700,000
1860 .....	1,091	442,700,000	5,200,000	115,700,000

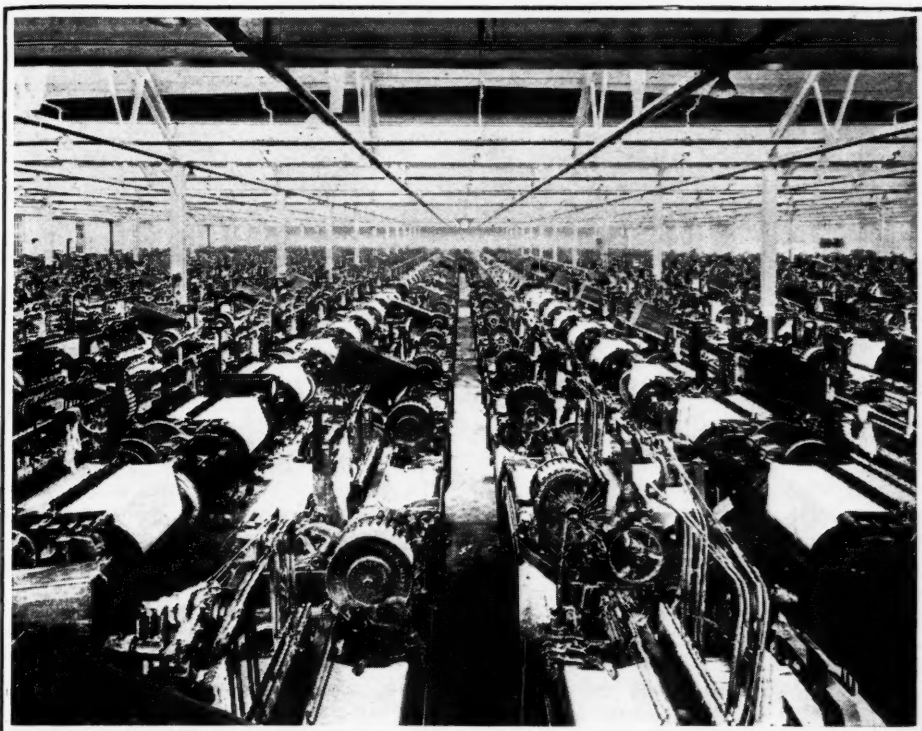
At this latter date the geographical distribution is shown by the following table:

	Establishments	Cotton Used (pounds)	Spindles	Value of Product
New England. 570		283,700,000	3,800,000	\$ 79,400,000
Middle States. 340		87,100,000	1,000,000	26,500,000
South. .... 159		43,900,000	300,000	8,100,000
West. .... 22		7,900,000	40,000	1,600,000

The number of establishments declined steadily in New England from 1860 to 1905, but the number of spindles increased from 3,859,000 in 1860 to 13,911,000 in 1905.

<sup>(1)</sup> From "The Cotton Manufacturing Industry of the United States," by Melvin T. Copeland, Harvard University Press, 1912, p. 3.





© Ewing Galloway

**THE VAST WEAVING ROOM IN ONE OF THE WORLD'S LARGEST TEXTILE MILLS,  
AT LAWRENCE, MASS.**

(A factory such as this gives employment to 5000 operatives)

After 1880 the Southern cotton mills began to threaten the supremacy of New England in this industry. While the Southern mills have grown rapidly, the

New England mills have not begun to decline as shown in the following table from the United States Census of Manufactures for 1921:

State	No. of establishments	Value of Products		
		Amount	Per cent. distribution	Rank
United States .....	1,527	\$1,330,263,117	100.0	...
Massachusetts .....	224	317,601,804	23.9	1
North Carolina .....	343	190,989,590	14.4	2
South Carolina .....	154	146,495,122	11.0	3
Rhode Island .....	127	114,227,091	8.6	4
Georgia .....	125	104,983,660	7.9	5

The Census of Manufactures for 1921 also tells us that the New England States produced cotton goods to the value of \$575,104,280, the cotton-growing States to the value of \$561,815,429. Though the South had gained more rapidly, and passed New England in the total product in 1923,

nevertheless New England continues to increase. The value of her cotton goods in 1923 amounted to \$720,472,350.

#### *The Shoe Industry*

Shoe manufacturing has been peculiarly a New England industry, from the days

when the work was done by itinerant craftsmen with hand tools. Massachusetts is still distinctly in the lead, though other

States are gradually gaining ground, particularly New York, Missouri, Ohio and Illinois, as the following table shows:

THE SHOE INDUSTRY IN LEADING STATES OF THE UNION

State	No. of establishments	1923 Value of products			1919 Value of products		
		Amount	Per cent. distribution	Rank	Amount	Per cent. distribution	Rank
United States....	1,606	\$1,000,078,022	100.0	....	\$1,155,041,436	100.0	...
Massachusetts...	595	290,674,403	29.1	1	442,466,236	38.3	1
New York.....	367	195,082,384	19.5	2	190,475,939	16.5	2
Missouri.....	65	121,830,354	12.2	3	109,193,423	9.5	3
Ohio.....	60	60,730,568	6.1	4	71,354,850	6.2	5
Illinois.....	60	60,332,201	6.0	5	39,402,383	3.4	9

(In 1919 New Hampshire was 4th, Pennsylvania 6th, Maine 7th, and Wisconsin 8th)

### Woolen Mills

As for woolen manufacture, the table below (taken from the Biennial Census of manufactures, 1921) shows Massachusetts

in the lead in the value of product, her leading competitors being Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, New York, New Jersey, Maine, and Connecticut:

State	No. of establishments	Value of Product		
		Amount	Per cent. distribution	Rank
United States.....	961	\$888,557,982	100.0	...
Massachusetts.....	295	279,732,416	31.5	1
Pennsylvania.....	254	144,429,529	16.3	2
Rhode Island.....	86	117,279,824	13.2	3
New York.....	63	85,482,054	9.6	4
New Jersey.....	34	75,026,138	8.5	5
Maine.....	57	42,194,479	4.7	6
Connecticut.....	47	35,268,882	4.0	7
New Hampshire.....	39	21,700,994	2.4	8
Ohio.....	14	12,201,787	1.4	9
Vermont.....	16	10,863,177	1.2	10
All other States.....	146	64,288,702	7.2	...

### New England Helps Build up Other Sections

The emphasis which New England has always laid on books and education has been a factor, not in her own undoing, but in the building up of her own rivals in the South and West. It was New England business training and capital that gave the chief impetus to the Southern cotton-manufacturing industry and to the Western shoe industry. These are two samples of the general fact that the superior educational facilities of New England have produced a relative surplus of training and talent which are two of the chief exports of New England.

There is a rather important sense in which any country or any section that develops a highly efficient educational system penalizes itself. Suppose there are two countries between which there is considerable freedom of movement, both of people and goods; in one of which there is a system of universal and popular education, in the other of which there is not. In the first country there will always be a dearth of the cruder forms of unskilled labor and an abundance of training and talent. In the other—the one without an educational system—there will be a superabundance of the cruder forms of unskilled labor and a dearth of training and talent.

The laws of inter-regional trade inevitably bring it to pass that the country with an educational system will export the product of that system and import unskilled labor. In the vernacular, it will export brains and import brawn. That is the crux of the Mexican situation at the present time. American business training, skill and capital tend to go to Mexico, American laborers do not. We are, on the other hand, importing a vast horde of Mexican peons, of which Mexico has a surplus as she has a dearth of training and talent.

On the same principle, but to a lesser degree, New England has sent her training and talent to all parts of this country. She got her unskilled labor largely from Europe until the restriction of immigration. She is now getting considerable quantities of Negro labor from the South. The only cure for the situation, so far as our own country is concerned, is to encourage the development of a system of education in all parts of the country comparable to that in New England. In the case of other countries whom we cannot influence so directly, some restriction upon the immigration of peon labor seems the only solution.

#### *New England Enterprises National in Scope*

There is a partial compensation for the contribution which New England training and talent has made to the prosperity of other sections of the country in the fact that the prosperity of New England is not fully measured by the industries that are located within her boundaries. She has investments in every part of the country, and many of the largest enterprises, even though located elsewhere, are still fundamentally New England enterprises. As one writer has put it, "The American Telephone & Telegraph Company, one of the outstanding public utilities of the world, is New England from skin to core," even though its principal office is located in New York. The business started in Boston, was developed by New Englanders, and to-day eleven of the nineteen directors are New England men and three of the remaining eight were born in New England.

Another illustration is the United Fruit Company, started by New England men. Eleven out of its fourteen directors are still New England men; it has 84 ships at sea, 70,000 employees on its payroll, has over \$100,000,000 invested in tropical lands and equipment, operates railroads and sanitary

systems—in short, is one of the world's great enterprises. The Stone and Webster Corporation, started in 1888 by New Englanders, operates properties capitalized at \$350,000,000, most of them outside of New England. These are a few samples. The spirit of the old whalemens who pushed their enterprise into the remotest corners of the globe is still alive, but it expresses itself in new ways.

Even in western pioneering New England did her share. In 1829 three brothers from Boston—William, Charles and George Bent—established Bent's Fort on the north bank of the upper Arkansas, a little above the mouth of Las Animas River. The site of its adobe walls is still visible to the eyes of the auto tourist who will take the trouble to seek it out. The redoubtable Kit Carson, before Frémont introduced him to fame, held the contract for supplying meat to this fort. It early became an important post on the old Santa Fé Trail. In 1834, Nathaniel J. Wyeth of Cambridge, Mass., established Fort Hall on the Snake River in Idaho. This fort was also frequented by Kit Carson and other mountain men, and later became one of the principal points on the old Oregon Trail.

#### *Problems Confronting the Yankee*

Can New England hold her lead in competition with other parts of the country? Probably not, if we measure New England's success by the industries and the farms that are located within her boundaries. The newer and less highly developed parts of the country will undoubtedly gain, for a time, relatively to New England. There is no reason, however, why New England should decline positively even in this sense. We must remember that we are one country now, and if New England continues to lead the rest of the country in education and thrift she will continue to make a large contribution to the welfare of the country as a whole and to cash in on her contribution. But it is not improbable that she will continue to draw more and more of her income from industries and enterprises whose physical properties lie outside of New England.

New Englanders are awake to this situation and realize its seriousness. A conference held in Worcester last fall discussed New England problems with the utmost frankness, and there is not much doubt that New Englanders will solve

their problems. Industrial problems are not solved by accident nor by the work of a few transcendent geniuses. They are solved by the simple process of massing a large quantity of high intelligence upon them. In the solution of the technical problems of production New England has always kept in the lead; in fact her prosperity has been due to the fact that she has always been about one jump ahead of the rest of the nation.

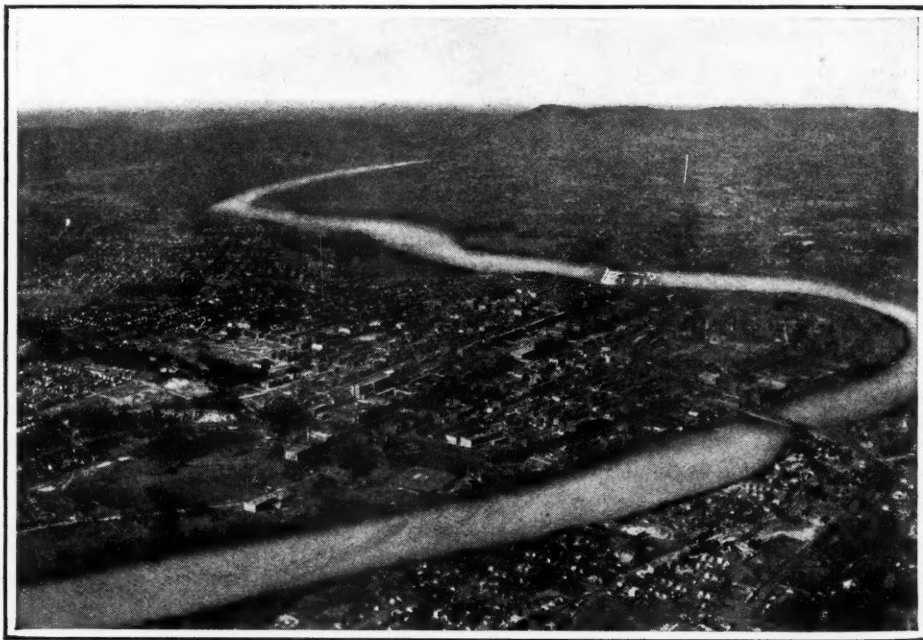
Two large, general, and non-technical economic tendencies have their bearing on the situation in New England. First, the wider geographical separation between the home and the business. Second, the growing importance of merchandising as compared with processing.

More and more, as man gains dominion over the physical world, especially as he improves his means of overcoming space, will he be able to live where he wants to live and do business elsewhere. In the older days, before transportation and communication developed, nearly every one had to live with his business. More and more, we are finding that considerable numbers of people can locate their families where the

living conditions suit them, and can carry on their business from this as a base. The agreeable summer climate of New England, the superior library and educational facilities, will make larger and larger numbers of people want to live there. From New England as a base they can continue, to an increasing degree, enriching the rest of the country and deriving subsistence in return.

With a few outstanding exceptions, every business is coming to be a selling organization, with a factory or a producing organization merely to keep the hopper full or to keep the selling organization busy. On the merchandising side New Englanders have been a little slow. They have relied mainly on the technical superiority of their industries to sell their products. From this time forward—at least for some years to come—New Englanders must give more attention to merchandising and follow the lead of the rest of the country in building up great selling organizations.

There is not much doubt that New England will be able to keep the hoppers full and to supply her selling organizations with all they can sell.



**WATER POWER IN NEW ENGLAND, RESPONSIBLE FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF GREAT INDUSTRIES AND THRIVING COMMUNITIES**

(This is the Connecticut River, at Holyoke, Mass. The river falls sixty feet in the course of a mile, and a dam more than 1000 feet long makes the power available for huge paper mills, cotton and woolen mills, and other manufacturing plants. Under such favorable conditions, Holyoke has grown in population from 22,000 in 1880 to more than 60,000 at the present time)



# A "POWER POOL" FOR NEW ENGLAND

BY OWEN D. YOUNG

[When New England leaders met in conference at Worcester last November, to discuss current problems and their solution, Mr. Young addressed them on the subject of power. His observations were so informing and suggestive that we deem it a privilege to give them wider circulation here.—THE EDITOR]

THE six States of New England represent a natural economic unit, with industry dominant and agriculture furnishing its perishable food supply. Specifically, what can it do? My answer is: create a New England power pool and draw from that mobilized supply, through adequate integrated transmission systems, the power needed for industry at the most economic point of production. All sources of power which are developed or can be developed should feed into that power pool.

Obviously, to the extent which it can economically be done, New England should develop as much power as possible from falling waters, because that is its most valuable raw material and it is inexhaustible. It can increase its supply of water power, and incidentally improve navigation and prevent floods, by a comprehensive development of storage reservoirs which will conserve flood waters, equalize the flow of rivers, and make power available in greater quantities than now exists. By turning all water powers into a common power pool, New England can get the benefit of the diversity in the flow of rivers arising from different rainfall in Maine and in Vermont. A small local power which is now being used only a few hours of the day, mobilized with others, might be useful elsewhere in New England for the hours in which it is not used at home. So through this common reservoir of power, the region can have full advantage of this diversity of supply, and can also, through its transmission system, take full advantage of diversity of use.

I know that this term "power pool" is an attractive political catchword. Unscrupulous men take advantage of it, and picture it as a great monster crouching to devour all men, women, and helpless chil-

dren within its reach. Let us be done with this nonsense because, in fact, it is a great servant and is subject, as it should be, to government control. Is America afraid to use great tools in her own interest merely because, uncontrolled, they would have power to injure?

One would think to hear many of the comments made that this pooling idea, in order to take advantage of diversity, was something new and untried in the business of America. That is not so at all. The business of our great insurance companies is based on that element of diversity. Our great banks are founded on it, and the service which they render to the community is made possible entirely because of the factor of diversity. All persons insured do not die at the same time—all fires do not take place at the same time—all persons having deposits in a bank do not withdraw their money at the same time—all motors and lights do not go on at the same time.

My suggestion is that we mobilize our power as intelligently as we mobilize our money, and handle it as wisely in the interest of the whole community. If each of us kept our money in our pockets, it would be working only when we used it. When we put it in the banks, we keep it working during the interval when we, as owners, do not need it. That is exactly the condition of localized powers whether steam or water. The moment we tie them into a common system of transmission, they are made available for use when the local needs do not require them.

The old feeling that the community in which a power exists is entitled to its exclusive use, however uneconomic that use may be, must be eliminated. That does not mean that the local community has no advantage from its power location—

it has. Power is the cheapest at the point of its generation. It grows increasingly expensive with the distance of its transmission. Therefore, the local community has the preference, and rightly so, on its own power. That is all it needs.

In New England there has been some feeling, also, that power generated within a State should not be transmitted outside the state. Unfortunately, political divisions only rarely coincide with economic ones. The thing most important for any State is to have its powers developed. They cannot be developed unless the power can be used to the highest economic advantage. If that point be within the State, well and good; but even then it needs the diversity factor of a wider area of use. If the State has to choose between leaving its powers undeveloped or having the energy from those powers go outside, there can be but one economic answer.

Suppose New England were to have a comprehensive survey made of its water powers as a whole, including studies for storage reservoirs which would improve and equalize the flow of her rivers. Suppose, then, her Public Service Commissions should agree upon comprehensive plans by which these powers, when developed, could be made available on an integrated adequate network of transmission systems throughout New England. Suppose the New England States, through joint commissions, should unify their laws regarding development and transmission of power.

Suppose, in other words, that these six States, through coöperative action, should clear the road of the legal obstacles now preventing the maximum development and use of power, and secure in effect great enabling acts permitting and encouraging the maximum use of this great resource, and at the same time uniformly control the business of power service so as to insure maximum benefit and the lowest rates.

Suppose in this comprehensive program there should be a great network of secondary lines which would be available for highway lighting and farm electrification—would it not be a great step forward in the economic and social progress of New England? I venture the statement that all that is needed is to clear away the legal obstacles, to pass uniform enabling acts, and the intelligent, high-minded operators of utilities will develop these resources and provide that service.

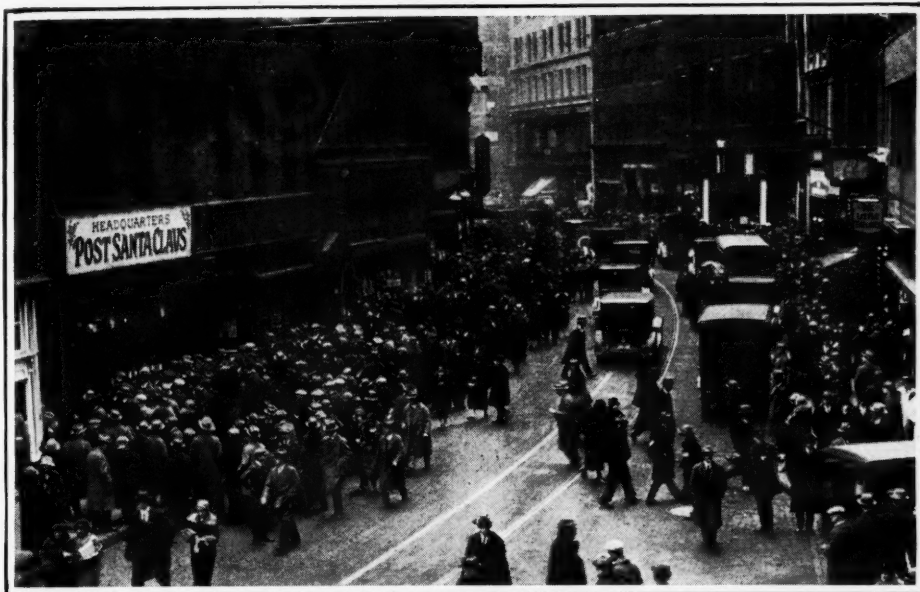
I do not intend to mention water powers only, because they will undoubtedly have to be supplemented by steam. New England's water power is inadequate and intermittent. Steam stations should be most advantageously located, composed of large and economic generating units and capable of getting the cheapest possible fuel supply.

If, in addition to the falling water and the steam generating plants, you can advantageously harness the tides of the northern coasts—throw the great rise and fall of the Atlantic also in a common power reservoir, then New England, which has been at a disadvantage in her raw material supply, will, at last, see the new day when she provides within her boundaries her most important raw material; that is, power. She will then be able increasingly to put power back of her individual worker, and if the history of the past be any guide her wage scales can go up and her cost of production down.

If wage levels are to be advanced or even maintained we must put more and more power back of the individual worker, and we must see that the supply is ample and that the cost is low. We must more and more make our capital provide us inanimate slaves. These slaves must run our machines—they must obey our orders—they must be available when and where and in such numbers as we may need them.

In the old days, we moved our individuals largely to the power rather than, as now, the power to the individual. New England is filled with cities and villages whose location was fixed by the existence of water power there. The power of the falling water developed through water wheels could be transmitted only short distances through belts and shafting, and in order to make that power useful, industries had to be located at the power sites.

Now a new day has come. The energy in water falling anywhere in New England may be put at work anywhere in New England. With improved facilities of generation and transmission, it is possible to lay down power generated at the most efficient place for use in industries at the most economic point. It is no longer necessary to move workers to the power. We take the power to the workers. And what is more, when the power reaches the point of application, it may be applied in any size units desired and may be made subject to the will of the worker who directs it.



WASHINGTON STREET, ONE OF BOSTON'S PRINCIPAL BUSINESS THOROUGHFARES, KNOWN AS "NEWSPAPER ROW"

## BOSTON, POLYGLOT BUT PURITAN

BY STUART LOWELL RICH

**B**OSTON is a manufacturing city, a polyglot city; less than half of her population is of Anglo-saxon stock, and scarce one in a hundred is a sailor, yet the Boston of to-day and to-morrow is bottomed on English puritanism and the sea. Without consideration of these two factors, no evaluation of the city could be attempted.

Attacking the discussion from the racial and sociological angles, what is this puritanism which, despite the lessening numbers of its natural heritors, has remained the dominant culture in Boston for more than two centuries and bids fair to continue its impress upon our social and economic life? Why has it so resisted the influx of new peoples and served to differentiate this city from others equally old upon the Atlantic seaboard?

### *English Beginnings*

The Puritan was a man of stern character, self-sufficient, intolerant and scrupulously honest. He was a seeker after knowledge and a seeker after material wealth. All of

these characteristics, the rigor of life upon a spot where climate and soil combined to exact a constant struggle for bare subsistence, only hardened. For more than a century and a half hardly a foreigner, nor any save those who came of his race and saw eye to eye with him, obtained a foothold in the colony. True, toward the end of the 17th Century some French Huguenots, numbering a few hundreds at most, who fled from their native land after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, settled in Boston, but they were so similar in character as to be quickly assimilated into the settlement. Frugal, industrious and thrifty, they furnished many names to the city's "Roll of Honorable Merchants," and those of Peter Faneuil and Boudoin (Bowdoin) are not yet forgotten in Boston. Later, some Scotch, battered in the Cromwellian wars and the break-up of the clans, together with a few North Irishmen came here, but they constituted a racial minority politically and culturally powerless.

In truth, there was little here to attract

the emigrant from continental Europe. The climate was bleak, as we have said, the soil comparatively unfertile and the settlers in power markedly intolerant. The industry of Boston lay then upon the sea and the only labor demand was for sailors, which the European peasant was not. Hence the rising tide of immigration which sent the German into Pennsylvania and the Scotch-Irish beyond the Appalachians, passed Boston by. Here, even after church and state had ceased to be synonymous, puritan ideals ruled in politics and in business. The puritan was a man aloof, a peculiarity which earned him no little unpopularity among the other colonies and it may be recalled that Thomas Jefferson once complained that the New Englander was worse than the Jew in considering himself as set apart from the rest of the world.

#### *Other European Stocks*

The famine in Ireland, and the renewal of persecution there was approximately coexistent with the demand for labor which had grown up in Boston with the rise of industry, hence the Irish refugee came north to Boston and in such a continuous stream has he been arriving ever since that Celt now outnumbers Saxon in the city to-day. Upon his heels, as more and more were wanted to man her growing manufactures, came the Russians, the Poles, the Italians, until her present population numbers Irish, Canadian, French and English, Italian, and Slav in approximately that order of numerical importance.

Despite this tremendous thinning of Anglo-Saxon names upon the municipal voting list, the English have managed with a rather astonishing degree of success to impress their standards upon the newcomers. The foreign population has rarely been absorbed into the body politic through intermarriage with the older inhabitants nor through any evolution in the latter's standards of living but rather have they been remoulded into the conservative pattern of the dominant class.

#### *Devotion to Education*

In discussing the Puritan, the late Henry Cabot Lodge once wrote, "He followed the dictates of that imperious will which is the inseparable companion of strong characters by setting up his iron theocracy with one hand while with the other he followed the opposite impulse of his nature and struck

off the fetters of the human mind." The incongruity between intolerance and education led inevitably to the fall of the church power, while the survival of the latter impulse is still apparent in the numerous opportunities for learning in which the Bostonian has interested himself. Nowhere in America has education, both practical and classical, received more attention, so that to-day there are within a few miles of the State House seventy boys' and girls' schools and fifty colleges, universities, art and normal institutions.

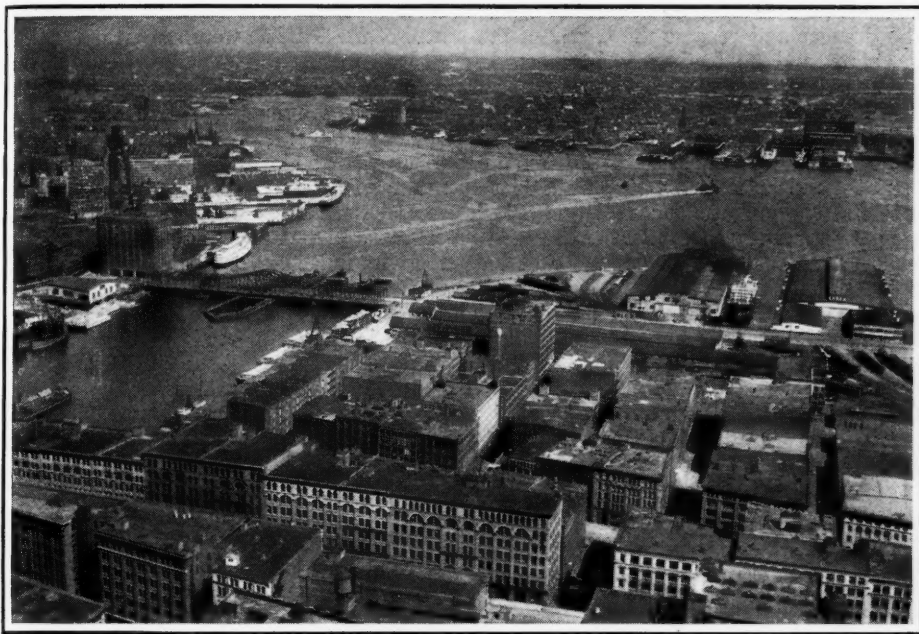
#### *The Venturesome Yankee*

Another paradox in the Puritan character hard for a New Yorker, for example, to understand is the spirit of daring manifested by Boston merchants in their business undertakings contrasted with the extreme conservatism with which they manage the organizations conducting these ventures. Boston merchants, it seems to me, have been more prone to put their faith in enterprises rather than men, whereas the New Yorker has chosen rather to speculate with the human element. The Yankee would embark his fortune upon a very uncertain enterprise and will still. Yet within his office or factory he is likely to abide by the rule of seniority in the matter of promotion and by certain forms of procedure handed down by his forefathers. Furthermore, he is too much of an individualist still to take kindly to a combination with his competitors even for a purely temporary coöperation. The New York merchant has imbibed more tolerance. He is ever ready to join with others in any idea for mutual profit and he looks with favoring eye upon the pushing youngster who can offer those ideas. On the other hand, he has shown himself neither so ready nor so ingenious in seeking new and untried fields for trading.

#### *The Bostonian as a Trader*

This naturally leads to that other side of Boston's present status, the economic. The foundation of Boston's material prosperity came from commerce, largely foreign trade, and it is significant, by the way, in this connection, that its profits arose from imports rather than exports. Without wealth, without natural resources other than her fast vanishing forests and her fisheries, her hardy and stern population became merchants upon the waters. Their first voyages





A PORTION OF BOSTON'S FAMOUS HARBOR

(Besides the older section, the city now includes the island of East Boston and the peninsula suburbs of South Boston and Charlestown—besides the former towns of Dorchester, West Roxbury, Roxbury, Brighton, and Hyde Park. Numerous bridges connect the city with most of the suburbs, but East Boston is reached by ferry and tunnel. Nearby are the cities of Quincy, Newton, Cambridge, Somerville, Brookline, and Chelsea. As the principal outlet for New England manufactures, and the point of entry for its raw materials, Boston ranks high among American ports)

were made to the South, largely to the West Indies for sugar and molasses, or to England for manufactured products, all of which were strictly for home consumption. Later, tropical woods from the West Indies, jute and cotton cloth from India and tea from China were added to the list of her purchases and any surplus left over from their own wants were profitably transhipped abroad. After the Revolution, her sea captains, whose trade had been confined to China and the West Indies to a large degree, developed business with many ports in the East Indies as well. Their object still was, however, not to sell New England products but to secure Oriental wares for sale here and in Europe. For fifty years after the winning of American independence, Yankee seamen were leaders in the Far East trade. With its increase, they were hard put to it to find cargoes suitable for Oriental customers with which to load their ships. At this time opportunity arose in the Pacific coast fur trade.

For cheap trinkets, the natives on the Pacific could be induced to part with valuable pelts, for which there was a large

and growing market in China, hence as the next step in Boston's commercial evolution we find her clipper ships loaded here with inexpensive and gaudy baubles, voyaging to the Pacific, lading there with furs to return from the Orient with spices, teas and silk stuffs. These trinkets and other small ware, mostly hand-made, could cheaply be produced from local bog iron, ores, and wood, by the hands of the sailors wives who found it worthwhile to eke out the family income what time their husbands were on voyages. This was the inception of the municipality's manufactures and marked the third step in her industrial evolution.

#### *Industry Catches Up With Commerce*

Once started, the Bostonian found it possible to use for his cargoes manufactured articles made from raw materials cheaply procured in other countries. Sugar and molasses from the West Indies led to distilling and the famous Medford rum; Indian jute, Russian and Manilan hems gave birth to the cordage industry whose products were so much wanted for our own

ships. The Bostonian bought cocoa beans, added sugar and became the center of the chocolate and confectionary business, in which industry, it may be interesting to note in passing, the city ranks fifth in the United States to-day. Thanks to her ability to import cheaply hides from the Far East and tanning materials from South America, she laid the foundations for her present supremacy in the leather business, while tin from Cornwall, added to native iron, furnished the Yankee peddler with his stock in trade. Finally, cotton brought up the coast from the South and from Egypt, gave Boston and those New England cities which she supplied with materials, the basis upon which to rear a textile industry still one of New England's basic manufactures. As early as 1835, a variety of cotton sheeting known as "Cabots" was carried by Boston skippers to Turkey and to this day that variety is a standard in that country.

#### *Warming Pans for the West Indies*

In a word, Boston sought to produce in order to have that with which to make purchases in other countries instead of using money, in which she was usually lacking. Many an ingenious scheme was devised by the Yankee to utilize anything which might by hook or crook become salable. Of this the export of warming pans to the West Indies is an instance now become classic. A more interesting and profitable example, however, was afforded by the export of ice to India. Ice cut in Spy Pond was sent in slow-moving sailing ships to the heat of Calcutta, passing twice through the torrid zone in its journeying, and offered to a public ignorant at first of its use! Conceive of the audacity of such a project which, begun in 1830, lasted until after the Civil War and the advent of artificial refrigeration.

#### *Boston Capital in Distant Fields*

Beginning about 1840 and more especially following the Civil War, industry in Boston had outstripped commerce, yet it was the fortunes accumulated by her merchants in foreign trade which enabled Boston in common with other cities of New England to build and equip her factories and foreign trade will always be an important factor in the prosperity of the municipality. Oddly enough, at the birth of her manufactures, foreign merchants, acquainted by

their business relations with the shrewdness of the Yankee were more than willing to loan money to the enterprises. In one case, Houqua, one of the wealthiest of the old hong merchants in Canton, sent J. Murray Forbes, a Yankee trader, \$500,000 to invest for him in New England cotton mills. In industry, then, appeared the second stratum of Boston's wealth. With capital accumulated first in commerce and then in industry, her inhabitants turned to the United States for other fields of exploitation. To develop "feeders" for her ships, such far-sighted men as Josiah Quincy, Nathan Hale and T. B. Wales, in spite of opposition, undertook the building of railroads. As later events proved a justification of their faith, Boston capital went into country-wide railroad development, and in spite of numerous disasters, such as attend the first years of any new industry, they were very profitable. The Michigan copper mines were financed and operated by men of the same city. This pioneering spirit which had always marked her sons lead their attention to the electrical industry upon its first inception and among the results of their efforts are the General Electric and the telephone companies. It was only when these industries became tremendously sized that Boston and New England took the rest of the country into investment partnership. So we see wealth has been laid up in strata of almost geological regularity as enterprise after enterprise in varied fields was undertaken by her citizens.

#### *Advantages and Drawbacks in Boston's Location*

Why, then, it is but natural to ask, with such a roll of profitable achievement to Boston's credit has the city of New York assumed such outstanding economic importance both in world trade and domestic commerce. The answer, to some extent at least, lies in the fact that with the expansion of the United States to the West and South, Boston has become a remote district. By railroad she is at a disadvantage compared to New York with its opening onto the Mohawk lowland, or Philadelphia and Baltimore from which stretch open plains to the South. Manufacturing centers of the Middle West can offer serious competition for interstate trade, while with steeper grades Boston must face higher freight rates. In spite of all this, however, no

city can offer the same benefits of a supply of skilled labor together with a modernly constructed port into which may come raw materials from all parts of the world. No city is more advantageously located for the assembly of many divergent ingredients into one finished product, which is the reason for the diversity of things manufactured here.

#### *Foreign Trade and Domestic Finance*

Her principal industries to-day ranked according to the value of their finished products are sugar refining, clothing, printing and publishing, boots and shoes, confectionary, foundry and machine products, cutlery and edge tools, bread and other bakery products, coffee and spice roasting and grinding, electrical machinery and supplies, chocolate and cocoa products, and patent medicines and druggists' preparations. The port of Boston does not handle, as one might expect, all of the exportable surplus of New England. As a fact, a large proportion of exports from central and western Massachusetts and southern New England go to New York for shipment. Little manufactured east of Worcester or in Rhode Island or Connecticut is shipped from here. This is due partly to lower rates from some of these points, partly to habit and in the case of textile goods to the fact that most of the large commission houses handling the major part of the output of New England mills have their main offices in New York. However, some increase in business in other directions has arisen; within the last decade her exports to Latin America for example have shown a steady increase. In the period 1914-21, they increased four millions of dollars, while those to Asia and Oceania jumped three millions within the same period.

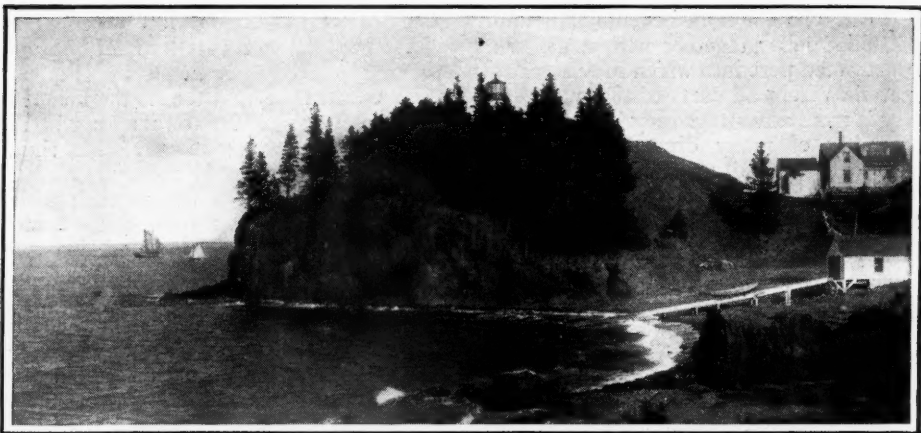
Summarizing, I may repeat that the economic future of Boston lies in foreign trade whereby she is enabled to import by cheap water transportation raw materials from the four corners of the earth to combine into finished products of relatively high value in proportion to their bulk. Until, also, freight rates are altered in some way so as to equalize them with those of other cities, the market for these finished goods will lie mostly where they can be shipped again by water either to ports abroad or to those along our own seacoasts.

There is one other economic service which Boston performs for the rest of

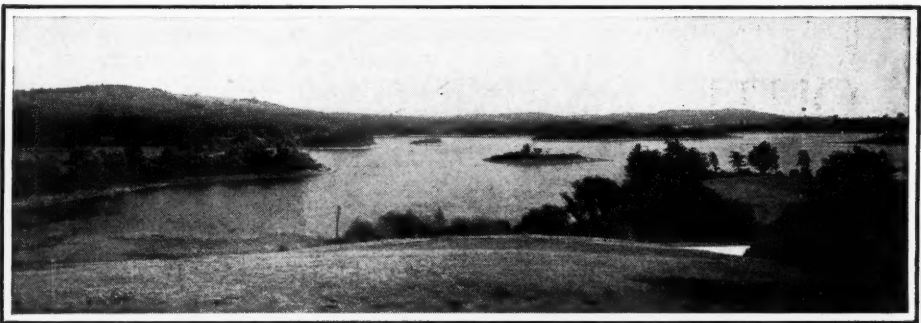
America as well as for foreign countries whose importance it is well nigh impossible to measure accurately but which is admittedly tremendous, and that is the financing of new enterprise. Boston may not be the export center for manufactures but she is the export center for the money of all New England. She is the tap through which runs the investment surplus of six States. The money supply of New York is drawn from North, South, East and West, but that of New England is all her own. It is the money made in these various activities of which I have spoken and which the thrift of her people has husbanded that comes to Boston to be reinvested. There is no section of the United States for its size which affords a larger reservoir of investment funds. Now investment breeds trade, and as this financial surplus enters industry abroad or in South America as it is doing within the last decade it furnishes invaluable aid to the business Boston merchants may do with those lands.

#### *Lasting Impress of Puritanism*

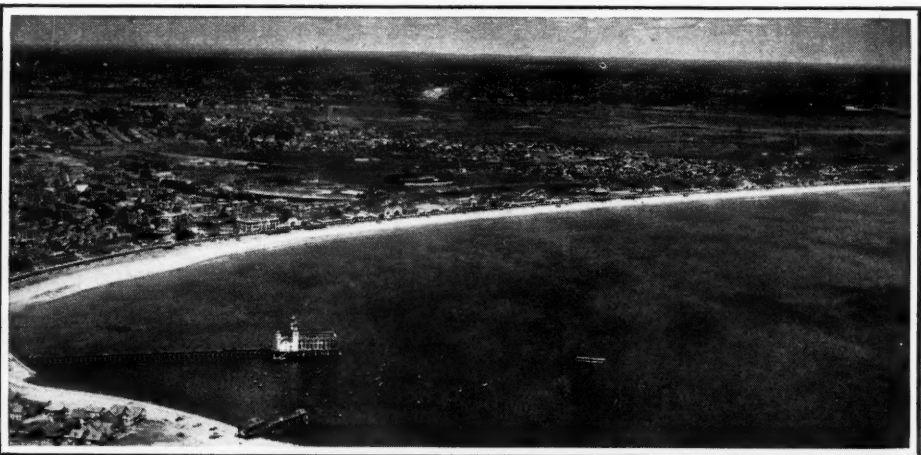
As for her social future, we have seen that always the Bostonian has had a rare faith in Puritanism, which is far more than a religion merely, but a well-rounded culture. He has not feared its limitations, nay has rather imputed to it a kind of universality, applying its principles to all manner of economic ventures as well as to the solution of social and moral problems, and the success attending most of them has seemed to justify his belief. The passage of years and the softening influence of prosperity has mellowed the pioneer aloofness; sympathy with one's fellows has somehow or other gotten mixed with the old exclusiveness, and it may be more than a hint of pride has mingled itself with the spartan simplicity of aforetime, yet I like to think that the leaven of the old breed is working among us still. Indeed, as I look at the social and economic habits of the city I am convinced that such is the case. The heritage handed down from the past is one to build on rather than to labor under—it has been strong enough, in spite of racial changes to make a homogeneous people with a firm background, and I venture to say that if, in another half century, Boston sends more Kabatznicks than Cabots, more Leveronis than Lowells to Harvard or Boston University, they will, culturally at least, be Puritans still.



THE FAMED SEACOAST OF MAINE IS INDENTED BY MANY BAYS AND INLETS. THIS POINT IS OWL'S HEAD, NEAR ROCKLAND



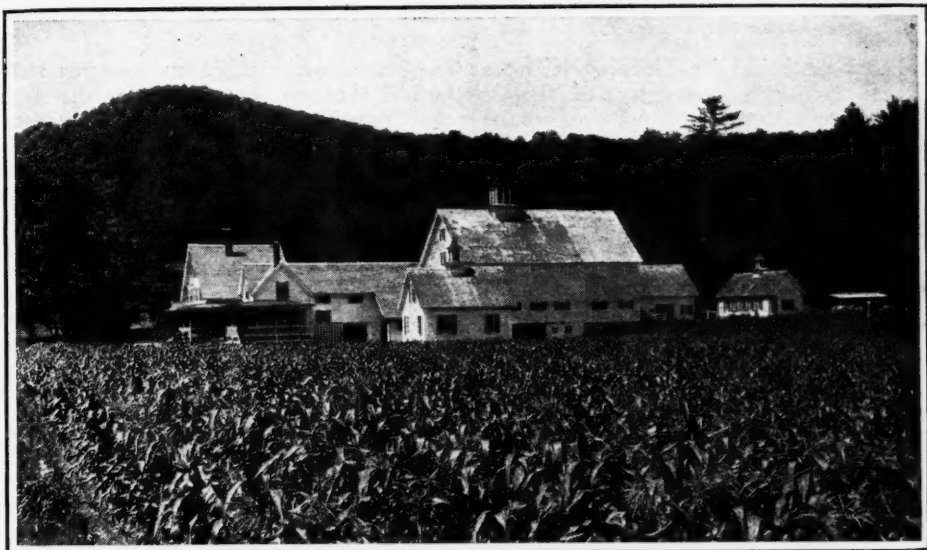
A LAKE IN THE BERKSHIRE HILLS, IN WESTERN MASSACHUSETTS NEAR PITTSFIELD—  
A THOUSAND FEET ABOVE SEA LEVEL



REVERE BEACH, ON MASSACHUSETTS BAY NEAR BOSTON, OFFERS UNEXCELLED BATHING  
FACILITIES

VARIED TYPES OF "WATERING PLACES" IN OUT-OF-DOORS NEW ENGLAND





© Ewing Galloway

THE FARMHOUSE AND BARNs OF A SUCCESSFUL MAINE FARMER

# OUTDOOR NEW ENGLAND

BY FRANK A. WAUGH

(Professor of Horticulture, Massachusetts Agricultural College, Amherst)

## I. Yankee Farming

IT MAY not be love at first sight, but New England looks good to every virgin eye. How many visitors have I seen feast themselves on this fair landscape! The clean farms and comfortable farmhouses have an air of home comfort and creature prosperity easily interpretable into higher values. The stranger quickly guesses that this alluring picture represents a genial and cultivated home life; and he guesses rightly.

Visitors from the West, especially, who have been taught to sneer at New England agriculture, are filled with exclamatory surprise to see these classically beautiful farmhouses, these ample barns and the remarkable state of repair in which the whole is kept.

Now can any sober man suppose that these fine farm buildings grow from a decadent agriculture—from farming unsuccessful and defeated? Certainly not. Nor can he infer that the inhabitants of those comfortable homes are living a mean, unhappy life. Good cattle, good poultry, good orchards and good automobiles are

pretty closely correlated with healthy, decent, sensible, comfortable farmers.

There are special circumstances which make farm life remarkably endurable in New England. The pleasant farmhouses already mentioned, with running water, with almost universal electric service, with good telephone connections and mail delivery, leave no invidious comparison between the farm home and the city home. Indeed it is too plain that the farm home has indubitable advantages of sun and air and space to play, of garden ground and open sky and shade of noble trees.

Villages are so frequent that every farm is within easy reach of all town privileges—school, church, library, movies and every social activity. Moreover it is a part of the political organization and social psychology to make no distinction, as is elsewhere sometimes made, between farm and town dwellers. The farm family has everything that the townspeople have, and some few advantages more.

Figures for farm crops, being usually given by States, are more misleading than

ordinary statistics; for Texas by its mere size makes a bigger showing than Oklahoma. Rhode Island seems to be nowhere, yet the individual farms may be more prosperous than anywhere else in Christendom and each particular acre more fruitful than the Garden of Eden. Yet it is not unimportant that the figures of the United States Department of Commerce, dated April 20, 1926, and showing the numbers of farms in each State and section, show that during the past five-year period the farms in New England have increased two per cent. while their number has decreased in every other geographical section of the United States without exception.

The same sheet of figures from Mr. Hoover's office informs us that only 5.6 per cent. of New England farms are run by tenants—much lower figures than indicated for any other section. For example, the rip-roariously agricultural West-North-Central group have an average farm tenancy of 37.8 per cent. Iowa, the paragon of American farming, shows 44.7 per cent. The average for the United States is 38.6 per cent. Inasmuch as economists have agreed to reprehend farm tenancy, those figures of 5.6 per cent. for New England look pretty good. Maine is the banner State of the Union, with only 3.4 per cent. of tenancy.

And without burdening this talk with any further figures it may be said (and anybody can look up the statistics who doubts) that the per-acre production of staple crops such as corn and potatoes shows that New England again stands at the head, producing uniformly larger yields than those sections to which the agricultural blue ribbon has been so easily awarded by the exhibitors themselves. New England soil has a just pride in the official figures, and New England farm practice shares in the credit.

### *Specialized Farming*

Of course nobody can get even a faint idea of Yankee farming who tries to frame it in terms of Kansas or Texas or Ohio. In my boyhood days in the Middle West I was taught that New England farms were small and stony. As a man could hardly make a living on 160 acres it seemed to follow that he would only make one quarter as much on 40 acres; that is, he would plainly starve to death in three months. And as for stones in the soil, they were enough to ruin any farm.

But it doesn't work out like that. There

is often a larger profit on 40 acres well farmed than on 160 acres skinned. And the stones? Well, they keep the plow scoured and improve the drainage.

It is often said that the leading characteristic of New England agriculture is specialty farming. True enough, but that is hardly a critical difference. Large areas in Minnesota and Kansas are farmed exclusively to wheat; or similar areas in Iowa and Illinois grow nothing but corn. That is specialty farming, too; only those are not New England specialties.

It would be a safer generalization to say that while the Middle West and the South specialize on staple crops, New England grows luxury crops.

One of my neighbors who has a fine farm of rich bottom land raises nothing but roses. His really active land is only about  $2\frac{1}{2}$  acres, all under glass. This brings in a gross return of some \$50,000 an acre; and I think anybody ought to admit that that is good farming.

One of the outstanding specialties in the Yankee farmer's program is potatoes, for which Aroostook County, Maine, is famous; and when the price this year went up to \$5 a bushel there was some money made—though it had to go toward paying off the debts of lean years.

Another Yankee crop is cranberries, localized in the marshes of Cape Cod. This is a luxury specialty in the strict sense.

Or if it isn't the luxury of luxuries there is tobacco. It always seems to surprise the man from Missouri—or Oregon—to learn that New England produces tobacco. Somehow everybody thinks of nicotine as a characteristically southern crop. Yet there are millions of dollars' worth of tobacco grown annually in Connecticut and Massachusetts, and even up into Vermont. What is more this is the highest-priced tobacco produced on the North American continent. It is used largely, as I am unreliably told, for pretty wrappers on fancy imported (?) cigars.

Then another New England crop of which we are all inordinately proud is our apples. Indeed we are almost as "cocky" on this point as the citizens of North Yakima or Hood River. Almost any day you can hear them saying, "Of course the western apples have *looks* in their favor, but when it comes to *quality*—!" This is the way the city people talk, affirming their patriotism. But amongst the Yankee fruit growers

themselves there is no concession—not even for looks. Now that modern cultural methods, so ably developed in the American Northwest, have been applied in New England orchards, the results are seen in large yields of fancy fruit. These apples have the color, the “feel,” the finish, of the best from anywhere.

Their main advantage in competition is that they do not have to submit to distant shipment. Now shipping apples a long way has two serious drawbacks: first it costs money; second it subtracts something from the freshness and aroma of the fruit. And this freshness counts for more than the layman would ever suppose.

On our own typical fruit farm in Massachusetts, where the crop runs from ten to fifteen thousand bushels a year, we never pack an apple in either box or barrel. The entire crop is sold, either directly on the farm, or is sent by truck to markets within one hour's drive. That is just the way all our neighbors manage, too. A minimum of handling, of packing and of storage places the product in the consumers' hands in the best possible condition at the least possible expense.

Let that picture hold the screen for a few moments, for it carries the central moral of the whole story. New England farms are devoted to luxury crops, like roses and apples, just because these are the products which gain the largest advantage from close proximity to market. Flour and meat can be shipped in bulk, can be carried long distances at minimum freights, and can be handled without deterioration; roses and apples can not. The answer of the Boston man is flour from Minnesota; apples from Littleton—an hour's drive by motor truck.

#### *Home Markets*

Years ago Boston and vicinity were famous, even if not popular, for the Home Markets Club. This organization was interested in cultivating a larger market for New England manufactures, and (political enemies alleged) in jacking up the tariff. But all the while that these manufacturing interests were growing they were enlarging the home market for New England farm produce and preferentially, by a large margin, for the luxury crops aforementioned. The mill operatives doted on apple pie, and the managers' wives like green-house roses.

Thus it will be seen how the system of Yankee manufacturing, Yankee politics and



From a photograph by the author

#### **MAY IN A NEW ENGLAND APPLE ORCHARD**

Yankee agriculture are closely interlocked and coördinated.

The large urban populations of New England obviously provide an enormous market for foods; the best market in America without question. It is guessed by statisticians that Massachusetts and Connecticut produce less than 10 per cent. of what they eat. If those figures are accepted, then there ought to be ten customers waiting for every pound of food as soon as it comes off the farm; and the advantage enjoyed by the home farmers is too obvious to be disregarded.

It is better than guessing to say that these conditions, more than any other, have led to an increase in the number of farms in New England during the last five years while all other more notoriously agricultural regions were registering a decline.

#### *Where Trees Grow*

Nearly one-half of New England is still forest. Whether we reckon one-quarter, one-half or three-quarters depends merely on our definition of forest, for between open tillage land and full-grown merchantable forest there are vast areas of “brush land”—the good Yankee word fits it. And while the aboriginal forests of New England were



© Ewing Galloway

## A TOBACCO FARM IN THE CONNECTICUT RIVER VALLEY

(Connecticut is second to none in the production of fine leaf tobacco used for cigar wrappers. Last year the production amounted to nearly 40,000,000 pounds. Western Massachusetts—the same valley—produced 12,500,000 pounds additional)

as shamefully wasted as any others in this land of the free and home of the fire-bug, yet they have had more time to recover. The reaction toward sane forestry naturally set in earlier here and has proceeded farther. To-day it is fair to say that constructive, conservative sylviculture has really made a start in New England.

In spite of the devastation caused by the chestnut blight, timber is being grown—good timber—white pine, red pine, spruce and hardwoods. Lumbering is still the active winter occupation of thousands of men. And of course the products of the forest here enjoy the finest possible markets. The manufacture of specialties from wood offers an amazingly varied and interesting field for the exercise of Yankee ingenuity. There are bobbin mills, toy factories, box factories, cooperage shops, excelsior mills and places where they make tool handles,

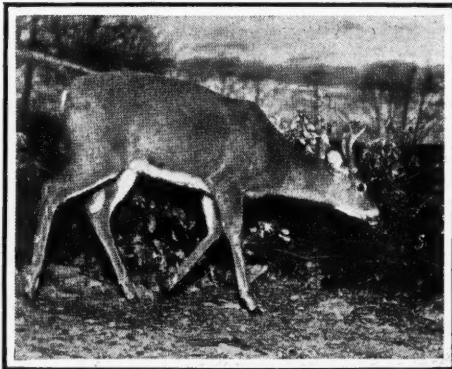
croquet sets, toothpicks, matches, garden label-stakes, chairs, violin backs, chopping bowls, fish rods and hundreds of other trifles for the maintenance of civilization.

*Famous Fisheries*

When we speak of Yankee farming the boys who plow the seas and harvest their crops of codfish and mackerel should not be forgotten. Last year the fishermen landed over 150,000,000 pounds of food fish at Boston wharves and over 80,000,000 more pounds at Gloucester. This takes no account of the quahaugs caught at Wellfleet nor the clams at Duxbury nor the lobsters along the North Shore.

This is by no means a negligible harvest. Nor is Massachusetts unmindful of such resources. The famous codfish in the capitol testifies to the State's appreciation. An active Commissioner of Conservation further expresses the interest of the Commonwealth in its fisheries. And what is done in Massachusetts is matched by similar efforts down the coast of Maine in support of the sardine crop and the lobster catch, and again in Connecticut for the protection of the oyster beds.

Steamed clams, broiled lobster, fried scallops, Cotuits on the half-shell! Dear, dear! Doesn't it make your appetite come rushing in like the waves on Nantucket Shoals? Even the homely salt codfish, the makin's of Sunday's codfish balls, beloved of all good eaters, are not forgotten. Oh, there are plenty of good things to eat in this hard Yankee land.



A WILD DEER BY THE ROADSIDE IN MASSACHUSETTS



## II. The New England Playground

The harshest critics of New England grant that it is a prosperous manufacturing section and a pleasant summer playground. How sweeping is its claim to distinction as a health and vacation country has, however, still failed of appreciation due to the inexplicable modesty of these Yankees themselves. They never had the advertising habit; they never participated in a real-estate boom; they have believed that New England was better than any other country and that everybody else would just naturally recognize so plain a fact.

Thus without any brass bands or any adequate publicity the really extensive resorts along the seashore and in the White Mountains have grown up. Yet here they are doing a steady business all summer and many of them caring for swarms of guests in midwinter.

It would be difficult to get any statistical picture of this wide-flung play, of the summer camps for boys and girls, the hotels in the mountains, along the shore, the innumerable golf clubs, the hunting lodges, the wayside teahouses, the summer homes on every hill. It may be noted, though, that this country has the raggedest seashore on the map—all cut into bays and estuaries and promontories—more miles of shore front than any part of the map ten times as large. And any visitor may see with his naked and normal eye that these shores are thickly built for miles and miles with recreation cottages. Some of these "cottages" at Newport cost a half-million dollars and some at Mosquito Beach were made out of disqualified packing boxes. But from June till Labor Day they are crowded with health and recreation seekers.

Did you ever participate in a New England "shore dinner," the clams, the lobsters and the green corn cooked on the beach and eaten in the salty open air? If you have there is nothing more to say; if you haven't there is yet much to learn.

A considerable section of the White Mountains, including the Presidential

Range, is included in a National Forest. On this area some attempt is made to keep an annual tally on the visitors. For the year 1925 the count registered 928,900—probably a low estimate. It would require very little guessing, though, to suppose that these visitors spent more than \$10 each on their vacations in the mountains. Even at that ridiculously low estimate the recreation activity of this one section shows a commercial value of nearly \$10,000,000. To this should be added the Lake Champlain region, the hunting and fishing down in Maine, the motoring of some 6,000,000 automobiles, average of four passengers per car, over the New England roads, and the millions of dollars spent along the margin of the salt water. All of these items added together would begin to give some clue to what this New England playground means in simple Yankee dollars.

### *A Network of Roads*

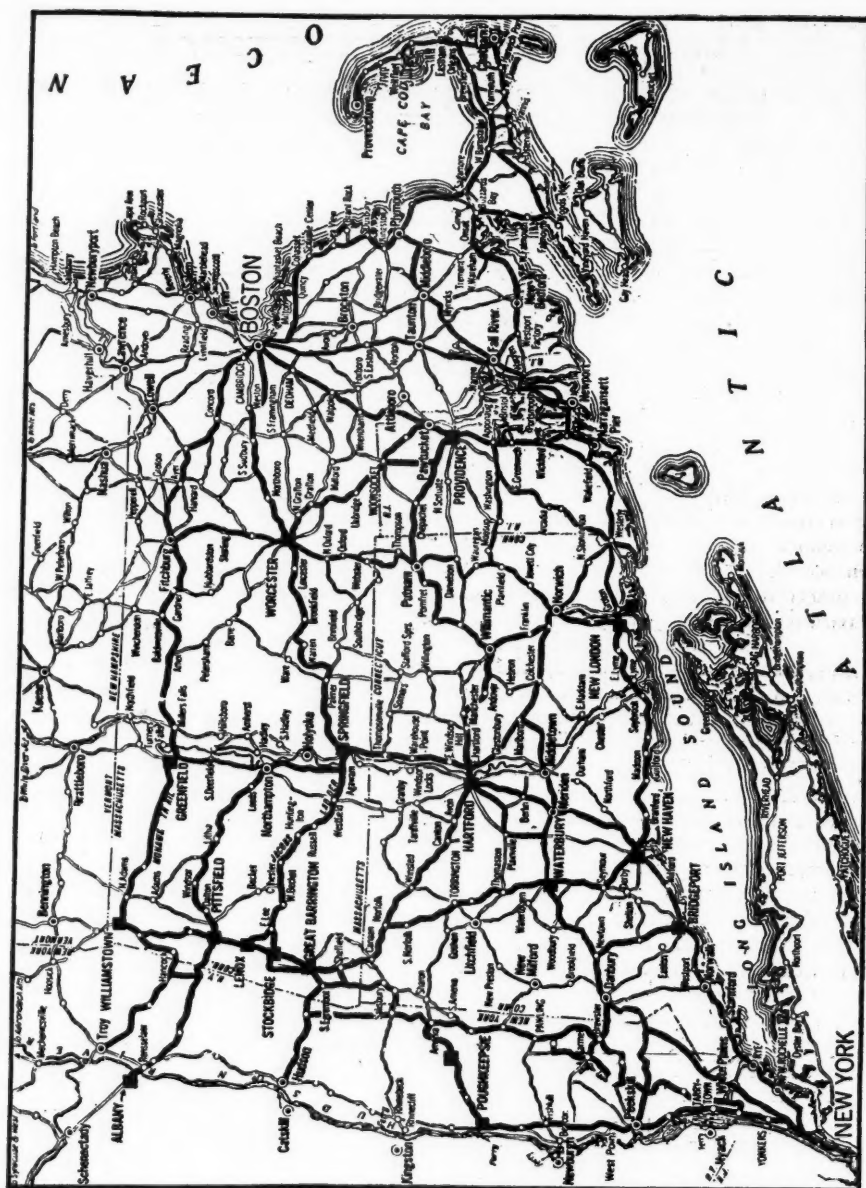
Every section of America now has good roads, but for obvious reasons southern New England has more miles per acre than any other. There are wide trunk lines where the traffic mounts to 5,000 cars a day—some more than that; and there are quiet country lanes where one would be puzzled to meet another car, but might meet a cow. The country lanes for me!

And, with the possible exception of Old England, after which this territory was nicknamed, these are the loveliest roads in the world. This is the mature opinion of a man who has studied roads from the standpoint of the landscape architect and the



From a photograph by the author

A PLEASANT VILLAGE STREET IN NEW ENGLAND



THE NETWORK OF GOOD ROADS IN MASSACHUSETTS, RHODE ISLAND, AND CONNECTICUT

(Nowhere in South New England does one need to travel over poor roads, and the cities and vacation spots are readily accessible. This map shows the main highways in heavy line, based on guides published by the Automobile Club of America.)

artist. They wind in and out, up hill and down the valley, here giving a view of outspread farms and far mountains, here showing glimpses of glassy lakes, here listening to the clash of roaring brooks. The straight, flat, featureless highways of other lands should not be spoken of in the same sermon. Those straight roads may be good for hauling crops to market, but

for beauty and for pleasure there is no comparison.

The fact is that motoring for pleasure is one of the most popular pastimes in modern America; and it is no serious breach of etiquette, I hope, to claim the obvious superiority of New England roads for this good business. And if we remember that the one small State of Massachusetts

for example, has a million automobiles running an average of 3,000 miles a year on pleasure bent, at an average cost of 10 cents a mile, the first class in arithmetic may quickly compute this single item for a valuation of \$300,000,000. This is no trifling matter.

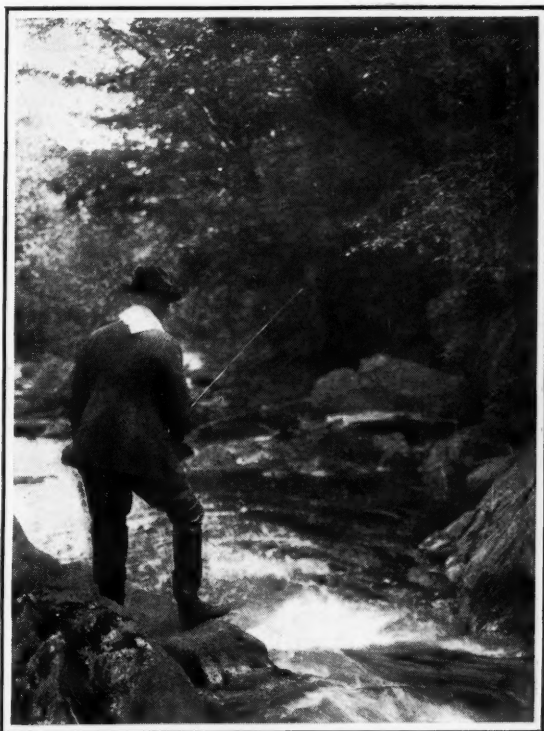
### *Wild Game*

As a startler for strangers one of the best items is that wild deer are common in Connecticut and Massachusetts—so common, in fact, as to be a nuisance to the farmers. People from Oklahoma and North Dakota can hardly credit this statement. Are not Massachusetts and Connecticut two of the most densely populated States in the Union? And how can wild deer (and an occasional moose) thrive there when all the native large game has practically disappeared from the sparsely settled Western States?

Yet here they are—by thousands. A deer, chased by dogs, recently ran down a main business street in New Haven and jumped through a show window. Not infrequently the motorist sees deer from the State highway. Each November there is an open season of six days in Massachusetts, and during that time approximately 2,000 deer are killed, representing roughly the natural increase. It comes a little hard to imagine a hunter taking the elevated out of Boston to kill a wild deer in the woods. Yet that is entirely possible.

While deer are undoubtedly the sportiest game in southern New England there is good gunning for ducks and other water fowl every fall along the shores of Connecticut, Rhode Island and Cape Cod. There are also some partridges and pheasants within gunshot of the skillful nimrod.

All this refers to the three Southern States in the group. Vermont, New Hampshire and Maine, everybody knows, have larger and remoter areas of wild land. The far forests of the Pine Tree State are amongst the wildest and sportiest remaining anywhere on this continent. Deer, moose and bear are staple species. Hunting big game is a recognized and advertised sport. A whole union of guides lives off the relatively solvent sportsmen who betake



From a photograph by the author

**A CONTENTED FISHERMAN AT A MASSACHUSETTS POOL**

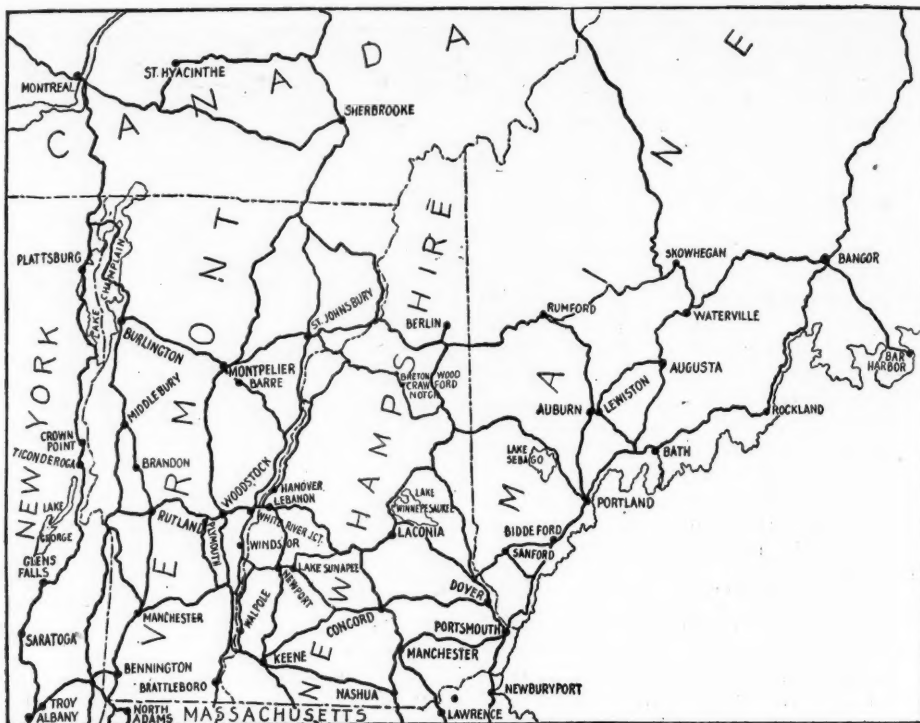
themselves thither, in ever-increasing numbers, for the hunting and fishing.

### *Good Fishing*

For the fishing "down in Maine" is even more famous. Probably it is the best fishing in the United States. Or if there are any better streams they are few and far and secret. I have myself fished (and caught trout) in Oregon, California and Colorado, in streams reported to be the best, and I would have to testify that I have seen just as good fishing in Massachusetts. In Massachusetts, mind you, not to mention Vermont and Maine.

Moosehead Lake and Champlain are commonly conceded to be the best fishing waters in this part of the world. Champlain does not yield trout, but has some bass, plenty of pickerel and a good stock of wall-eyed pike; while for the frying pan old campers always fall back on the ubiquitous yellow perch.

Each New England State is served by an eager, competent fish and game commission. Streams and covers are freely



THE PRINCIPAL MOTOR ROUTES IN MAINE, NEW HAMPSHIRE, AND VERMONT

stocked and well protected. Thousands on thousands of hunting and fishing licenses are granted annually for a tidy sum of fees. It is a fact that some men who pay their yearly fee never shoot a bird nor catch a fish, but most of these men and boys—and women—really catch something. Thousands of sober citizens still know the smell of frying fish and the taste of venison.

#### *Camping and Canoeing*

What is more—vastly more, is that hundreds of thousands of New Englanders, though they live in the most crowded cities, may still find within easy reach of home long miles of wild singing brooks over which to cast their flies, quiet lakes for still fishing and miles on miles of untamed forest land where deer, bear and moose still run wild. Here they may fish and hunt, and here they may pitch their tents and sit by the campfire, here they may float their canoes and remember that they are free and native Americans.

For this has long been the characteristically American thing. The wild country here is altogether a different commodity

from the kept covers of Europe where nobody but the nobility (either of blood or money) may sit on a stool and have the game driven in. Every genuine American feels this in his blood. "The call of the wild" is the call of his native land.

Nowhere else (except for a limited area in southern California) do the natives turn so naturally and numerous to these aboriginal backgrounds. The shores of our ten thousand lakes are almost scandalously crowded, and sometimes, it must be confessed, are spoilt by the shacks and cottages of campers, that is of persons who come here to spend long and delicious vacations. A thousand miles of seashore are similarly preempted. Along the remotest streams these camps will be found.

Besides these permanent cottage camps there are other thousands on thousands of enthusiastic lovers of the wilds camping under canvas—real camping! For when one sleeps out in his tent he is drinking nature to her rich and luscious lees.

Along with such camping and fishing go the canoes. This fragile and beautiful craft belongs by tradition to Maine and



Canada, but canoes are popular throughout New England, even at the salt water resorts. Even at that they are not so much patronized as they deserve to be. For in Massachusetts and Connecticut—coming back to the crowded and over-civilized parts—there are literally thousands of miles of good canoe water. There are lovely little brooks, used by nobody but the muskrats and the wild fowl, where one may paddle his canoe, or float at leisure and look in the mirror below him. Here he may pitch his tent, fry his bacon, roll up in his blanket and dream like a boy.

#### *Winter Sports*

All this comes with the leisure of summer holidays. To outsiders New England undoubtedly appeals most as a summer vacation land. Over great areas, I am aware, they pity us our Arctic winters. Those friends little realize how comfortable and happy we are here in January.

In truth the winter vacations are as delightful here as those of summer. Ask the girls who go up to Dartmouth to the winter carnival. Ask the men and women who crowd the resorts in the White Mountains for winter sports. Ask the boys and girls who go sleighing, skating, snowshoeing and skiing.



CANOEING ON A SMALL NEW ENGLAND STREAM

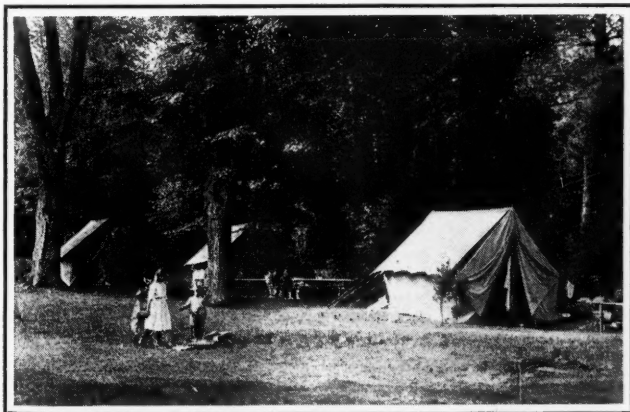
Of course there are concerts and dramatics and dances evenings; but why tempt and tantalize the world by dwelling longer on the good times which fill the too-short days and the long nights of the Yankee winter?

#### *Public Reservations*

Such a large and complicated run of outdoor recreation calls for large appropriations of land. Summer camps, cottages and hotels are all on lands privately owned; and this acquisition of private recreation property has raised some troublesome questions. Here is a lovely little lake, originally enjoyed freely by the community at large—a public resort for bathing, boating and fishing. But gradually the shores are bought out for private cottages; presently the whole shore is taken and the public practically excluded. But not without

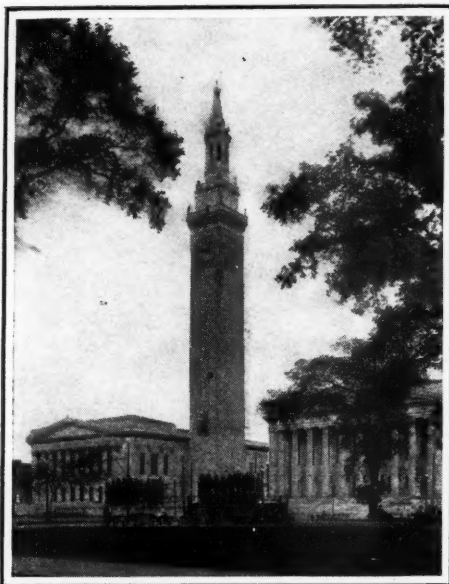
protest and bad blood.

The general answer to these developments has been the erection of considerable systems of public land holdings dedicated to free public recreation. These reservations are of a rather miscellaneous character, but their main object is the same. Or if we make an exception of the important public forests, as having been set aside for more utilitarian purposes, still these forests, too, are very generally and generously used for recreation.



AN AUTOMOBILE TOURIST CAMP IN THE NEW ENGLAND HILLS

(From a photograph by the author)



THE CIVIC CENTER AT SPRINGFIELD, MASS.  
(One of these twin buildings is for offices, the other a splendid municipal auditorium. The Campanile is 300 feet high)

#### *It Pays to Be Beautiful*

The only National Park in the East is the Lafayette on the shores of Maine; but the largest and most visited area is the White Mountain National Forest of some 400,000 acres. Connecticut and Massachusetts have numerous state parks (sometimes under other names) and all the States have state forests.

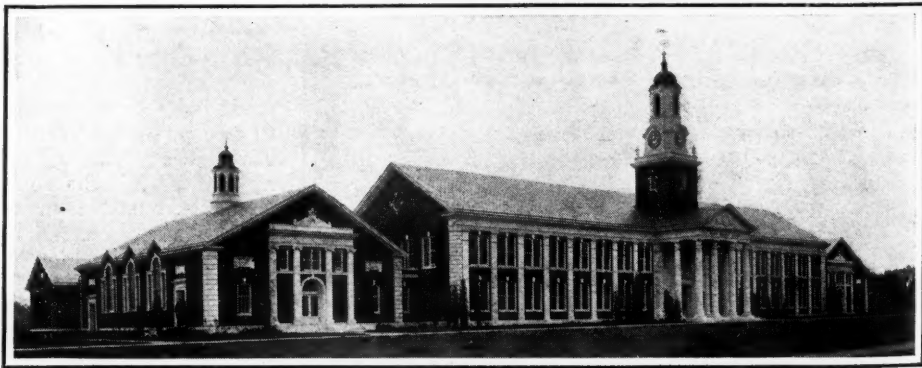
All this great mass of outdoor life, for health, education and recreation, is im-

measurably valuable. Yet all derives from the landscape. Without the forests, lakes, streams and seashore it would all be impossible.

The landscape of New England is in fact extraordinarily charming. It is varied. Other regions have larger mountains, some have larger lakes, some have bigger rivers, Nebraska and Kansas have their noble prairies; but New England has good examples of almost everything; and the different types are interspersed so as to give that constant variety which is the spice of life.

There are no freaks of nature nor spectacular wonders in this landscape. For this very reason the landscape is more acceptable as a daily diet. One can see Niagara Falls, or the geysers or the Grand Canyon now and then for a few days of awesome wonder, but no one would choose to live in such an environment. The New England landscape is nowhere overwhelming, nowhere demanding ecstasies and exclamations. Rather is it quiet, refined, homely, luxuriant with trees and foliage, smiling, friendly. The lakes are small enough to be known personally and loved. The brooks sing melodiously. The forests whisper tenderly so that those who have ears to hear, as it saith in the Scriptures, may hear. The whole landscape is intimate and human.

That, no doubt, is why so many annual visitors find in it the refreshment of spirit which is the best of any vacation, winter or summer. And more especially is that the reason why the several millions of men and women to whom this country is home love it so wholly, so passionately.



THE STATE NORMAL SCHOOL AT NEW BRITAIN, CONN.

(Financed coöperatively by the city and the State. Ultimately dormitories for the 300 young women students are to be erected)

# TRANSPORTATION IN NEW ENGLAND

BY E. G. BUCKLAND

(Vice-President, New York, New Haven & Hartford Railroad Company)

IT WAS no mere chance happening that the thirteen original States were limited to a comparatively narrow fringe of land on the Atlantic seaboard. This territory marked the extent of the transportation of that day—on foot, horseback, carts, wagon, and sailing ship. The United States became a nation, in fact, with the inauguration of Washington in 1789. At that time Robert Fulton was experimenting in France with his steamboat; Watts was on the point of inventing the stationary engine. The one the progenitor of the steamboat; the other of the steam locomotive. The Renaissance, which as to arts, sciences, literature and discovery had begun three hundred years before, now began for the first time to evolve inventions in modern transportation. The steamboat became a practical facility of commerce in 1807. Within the next ten years the United States of America extended its settlements to the limits of the new method of transportation.

Hardly was the steamboat fairly in operation than along came the steam locomotive. In 1827, twenty years after the *Clermont* trip up the Hudson, the first locomotive was run in this country. Eighty years intervened between that day and the passage of the so-called "Hepburn Bill" which gave the Interstate Commerce Commission control over railroad rates. Within that time the mileage of the railroads in the United States had reached 262,000 miles (equal to the combined mileage of all other countries in the world); and, best of all, this mileage has grown with the country pushing the frontiers of civilization farther and farther westward until the driving of the golden spike at the momentous meeting of the Central Pacific and the Union Pacific in 1867.

The construction of the first trans-continental road was an event which made certain the solidarity of continental United

States, a territory where one can travel 3000 miles from east to west and 1500 miles from north to south without crossing a political frontier or necessarily using any but the English language. Of no other nation can such a thing be said, and it is all due to transportation—carrying of goods and people and the transmission of intelligence in commerce. Other transcontinental railroad developments, followed the first one as a matter of course.

They have been immeasurably added to by the telegraph, invented in 1855, and the telephone in 1876. Without the telegraph and telephone, railroad trains would have to grope their way through uncertainty and darkness. With them they reach the speed of which their roadway and equipment are capable.

## *Electricity as a Factor*

To transportation by steamboat and by railroads—with their aids, the telegraph and telephone—there have been added within the last thirty years the electric motor, operating over standard railroads, the trolley cars, the highway motor coach and motor truck, the airplane and a new means of transmitting intelligence by radio. All these contribute to the carrying of persons and property and the transmission of intelligence in commerce. What is the field which each should occupy? It is too early yet definitely to describe the boundaries within which each can most satisfactorily and efficiently operate. One thing we do know, that despite the advent of these new methods of transportation the bulk of the property must be carried by the standard railroad and the standard steamship.

The electric railroad motor has introduced new economies, particularly interesting to those who live in that part of New England where the thermometer goes below zero. Theoretically the limit of the work which

the electric motor can perform is that which will melt the insulation around its wires; so the lower the temperature the more work the motor will do. Add to that the possibility of cheap electric power from the lakes and streams of Northern New England, there opens the vision of electrically operated railroads which can defy temperature and perform more rather than less work in winter as against the impaired efficiency of steam locomotives in zero weather.

#### *Use of Motor Coaches*

The place of street railways since the advent of highway transportation is somewhat altered, and yet it seems certain that in cities of substantial size there is no other way so economical as the street railway in handling large crowds at peak hours. The street car will carry three times as many people as a motor coach and occupy scarcely more space. It is impossible to handle large crowds in motor coaches during peak hours without seriously congesting the city streets. It is probable that, except in rare instances, the motor coach will take the place of the street car in interurban communication. Likewise it will be used in lieu of and in aid of passenger transportation upon the standard railroads.

The policy which has been adopted by the New Haven system has been to continue passenger train service either by steam trains or gasoline cars upon branch lines to the extent necessary to serve the public in the carriage of baggage, express, and low-class mails, and to supplement that service by motor coaches in carrying passengers and first-class mail. Applying our rates, both local and commutation, to

motor coaches we find that whereas we are not likely to make a large profit from the motor-coach transportation, we are saving expense in substituting that service for the train service; and the result is a substantial increase in net revenue of the company, brought about not so much by increasing the gross revenue as by decreasing the operating expenses.

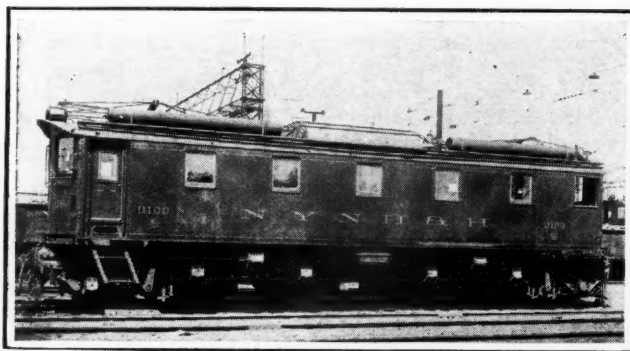
#### *The Motor Truck*

The place of the motor truck is yet to be determined. Obviously, it is to the advantage of shippers as well as carriers that there should be prompt dispatch and delivery of all freight. If the railroads were free from the possible claim of unjust and unreasonable discrimination in the carriage of freight, it is likely that they would be more enthusiastic than they are for door-to-door transportation. But so long as there remains a possibility that a man not located on a railroad siding will ask for the same rate as a man so located, there is danger that the railroads who venture into the motor-truck business will be required to deliver off their lines at the same rate that they deliver on their lines. The amount paid for trucking in southern New England is substantially equal to the amount paid to the railroads for carrying freight. It follows that any proposition which requires a railroad to absorb motor-truck charges would quickly put it into bankruptcy.

#### *Airplane and Radio*

The place of the airplane in future transportation seems at present to be limited to carriage of mail, possibly of a few passengers, and some valuable articles which can afford to pay a higher rate. It is too early to predict what will be the field of economic activity for the airplane when it has been further developed.

Radio may yet play an important part in transportation. There is a possibility amounting to a probability that radio communication may be so perfected that not only may an engineer and a conductor of a train be in communication with each other throughout the run,



**ELECTRIC FREIGHT LOCOMOTIVE OPERATED BY THE  
N. Y., N. H. & H. R. R.**



but that both may be in communication with operating and dispatching headquarters, and so be kept more intimately and constantly advised than may be done to-day through any signal system, however good.

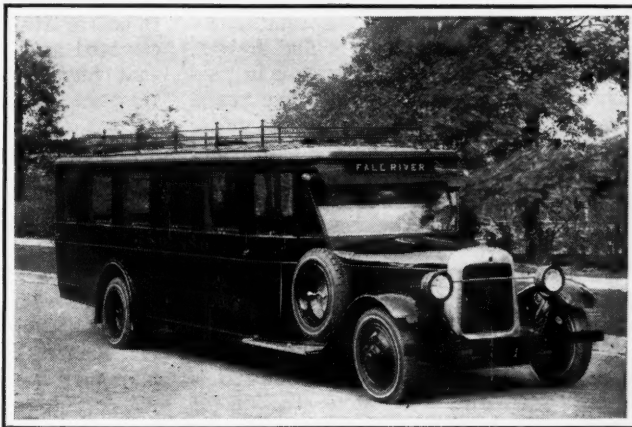
#### *Relation Between Carriers and Public*

The foregoing is only a rough sketch from which a more perfect picture of transportation may hereafter be created, but there must not be left out of this picture the always increasing importance of the relations between transportation companies and the public which they serve. The obligation to give service must be first and foremost in the hearts and minds of every transportation employee from the president down. Each must realize that his material prosperity, no less than the success of his company, depends upon his ability to furnish transportation, to carry freight, passengers, baggage, express and mail promptly and satisfactorily at a price which the users of transportation can afford to pay.

Conversely, the employee has the right, and it is his duty, to show to the public whom he serves the cost of producing this transportation, to the end that he may receive back from the public this cost and a fair profit beyond to pay the return upon the value of his property which he devotes to the service.

The public should, in its turn, stop thinking of transportation agencies as high, far off, and indifferent. They should be looked at as they really are, a group of hard working, conscientious citizens of the same community, doing their best—sometimes amidst exceedingly great difficulties—to give the service to which the public is entitled.

The public and transportation agencies will, I am confident, in the future come more and more to realize their interdependence, that neither can permanently prosper without the other or at the expense of the other; that charging what the traffic will bear does not mean charging what the traffic will *not* bear; that the slogan "The



A NEW ENGLAND MOTOR COACH

Public Be Damned!" is instantly met with the counter slogan "Damn the Railroads!" From these two slogans of hate there can come nothing but misfortune for both the public and the railroads.

New England is fortunate in owning its transportation agencies and in furnishing a density of traffic which promotes the using of all kinds of modern transportation. Add to this an increasing desire to serve by the transportation companies, an increasing confidence and good-will on the part of the public, and there must be realized the prosperity of both parties which comes from a realization of this interdependence.

#### *Analysis of Traffic Figures*

But New England railroad carriers have important local problems demanding solution. A comparison of statistics of the New York, New Haven & Hartford Railroad for the past five years affords some interesting sidelights. The total revenue freight carried in 1921 was approximately 22,000,000 tons; in 1925 it was 28,300,000—a gain of nearly 30 per cent. The total number of revenue passengers, exclusive of commuters, in 1921 was 25,200,000, while in 1925 it was only 22,600,000—a loss of 2,600,000. Commuters' trips decreased from 65,600,000 in 1921 to 47,560,000 in 1925. But each passenger traveled, on the average, 25.74 miles in 1925, against only 20.83 in 1921, and paid 70 cents instead of 56. Therefore the total passenger revenue increased \$1,200,000 over the earlier period.

The many excellent roads, the short distances, the large cities, and the dense

population—all promote transportation by highway, both of passengers and freight. The result is seen in the decrease in passengers carried during the last five years. The private automobile and the motor coach have become active competitors of the railroad and the street railway. If rail carriers are to get this business back they must run motor coaches in coordination with other service, and so offer to the traveling public, better, speedier, and safer service than can be obtained from any other source.

#### *The Problem Caused by the Commuter*

A peculiar problem of New England is furnished by the commuters—the people who work in the city and live in the country within a radius of about thirty miles, and who travel morning and night into and out of our large cities at a low rate of fare. They are largely composed of executives and professional men who have chosen to live in the country, and of supervisory and clerical forces who live in the country by necessity. There is a limit to what some of them can afford to pay, and yet they must be served. The commuters are rapidly increasing in proportion to the total passengers carried; the low revenues received dilute the carriers' net earning and the increased demands upon equipment mean more frequent suburban trains to congest terminals needed for through express trains.

It seems clear that the solution of this problem is to be found in the extension of the elevated and subway systems into the suburban districts and the diverting of the commuter to those transportation facilities, built for and especially adapted to his needs. The part of the railroads should be

to coordinate their service with that of the elevated and subway systems to the end that commuters may have the service which they need at a price which they can afford to pay, and at a cost which will realize a profit to the carrier.

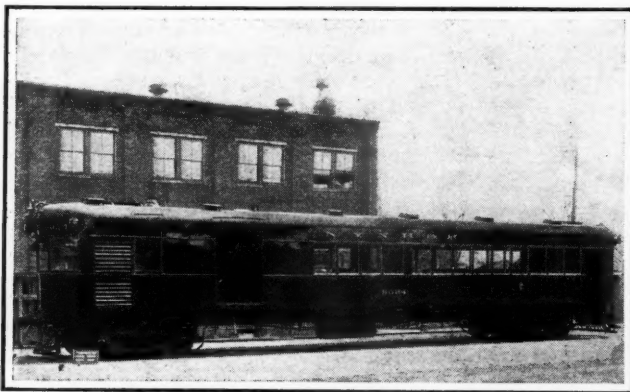
#### *The Railroad's Relation to Local Industries*

Another problem which New England and its rail carriers must solve is the establishment and maintenance of new industries. Located so far from any coal mines or raw material, New England will be likely to find it increasingly difficult to maintain its manufacturing rank. And yet it is surprising and gratifying to find the number of factories increasing and with greater variation in the products manufactured. This is because of the nearness of the large cities, where raw material may be bought and the manufactured products sold, also because of the large amount of skilled workmen who apparently like to live and bring up their families in New England.

#### *Summer Transportation*

The rail carriers in summer are called upon to furnish a large amount of passenger transportation within a few days. The Fourth of July, August first, and Labor Day witness great crowds of travel to and from the summer playgrounds in New England, seashore and mountains. This requires an assembling of passenger equipment in preparation for the rush and a distribution of it after the rush, which is a bit strenuous for the operating forces, and unthought of by the casual traveler.

New England does not like to be considered principally as a summer or a winter playground, though both are rapidly developing. Its eminence in manufacturing and in educational facilities, its attractiveness as a region of old-fashioned and present-day American homes, are much more the outstanding characteristics of which New England people are proud. And it is the job of the New England carriers, to produce and sell transportation that is calculated to promote manufactures and to keep pace with their requirements.



GASOLINE RAILCAR WHICH SERVES THE NEW HAVEN RAILROAD

# RAYON—THE MAN-MADE FIBER

BY THEODORE WOOD

**"NO STOCK** available to the public." In a bulletin recently issued by a Wall Street house to its customers, the principal Rayon-producing companies in the United States are briefly described, and the comment quoted above appears in connection with nearly all of them. It does not require a Russell Sage to deduce from this that the owners have such a good thing that they are keeping it in the family. The Rayon companies whose stock is not available to the public constitute over 80 per cent. of the American producers.

It is said of the largest and oldest manufacturer of Rayon—Courtauld's Limited, of England—that an investment of \$500 made in this company by a country parson in 1913 has to-day a market value of \$1,550,000. Furthermore, the parson has received liberal cash dividends each year, and it is to be hoped he is quite sincere when he exhorts his parishioners to "lay not up for themselves treasures on earth where moth and rust doth corrupt."

## *A New Word for a New Article*

What, then, is this Rayon that has brought to one Company, at least, success comparable to that of Ford Motor and Standard Oil?

A year ago President Coolidge, in preparing an address to be delivered before the National Association of Cotton Manufacturers, kept running across a word which meant nothing to him, but which he suspected, from the frequency of its appearance in textile literature, meant something important in the world of cotton. The word was "Rayon."

It was not in the latest unabridged dictionary, but a text-book enlightened him. He discovered that the industry was first introduced into this country in 1910; that in 1911 about 300,000 pounds were produced, and 35,000,000 pounds in 1923. To-day he would find that we expect to

produce during 1926 more than 74,000,000 pounds. Here is an infant industry having all the ear-marks of a prodigy. The word "Rayon" is a coined term used by nearly all producers to designate the first and only man-made fiber—formerly called artificial silk.

It is not, however, artificial silk any more than a motor-car is an artificial horse—although a car has some of the traits, and performs many of the functions, of a horse. Rayon is chemically and structurally different from silk and merits a name of its own.

## *Early Discoveries by Chemists*

Since antiquity, men have used cotton, wool, silk, and flax to make garments and other useful and ornamental fabrics in infinite variety. It remained for a young French nobleman, Count Hilaire de Chardonnet, himself a chemist possessed of what Kipling calls an "insatiable curiosity," to undertake to find out how the silk worm, after industriously eating mulberry leaves, produced silk to make its cocoon, the original sleeping bag.

In 1889, as a result of his researches, Count Chardonnet gave to the world its first commercially successful process for producing Rayon. This he accomplished in his laboratory by chewing up chemically not only the mulberry leaves, but also the tree itself, with very likely a few worms thrown in for luck. The fiber that he produced so much resembled natural silk that it was termed "artificial silk," by which name it has been known until four years ago, when the word "Rayon" was agreed upon by those who made and sold it.

Chemists in Europe began to follow up Chardonnet's marvelous achievement. Some years later a process was discovered in England for making Rayon from either cotton fibers or spruce wood, and the Germans found still another method of doing the same thing.

The fiber itself was not at first a great success. It was weak, coarse, irregular, difficult to weave and dye, and its luster was too glaring for good taste. For years it appeared that its use would be limited to comparatively few lines. Leading textile experts believed it would never replace silk.

#### *Costly Plant and High Technical Skill*

The first great commercial success came to Courtauld's Limited, an English concern incorporated in 1904, who, through patient development of the process, improved the product so that the demand for it grew with great rapidity and the profits began to pile up. Other pioneer companies spent fortunes in further experiments and research work, naturally keeping their findings very much to themselves, some succeeding but many more failing.

In the first place the cost of a Rayon plant was, and still is, very high. It requires from three to four million dollars to build, equip, and provide working capital for a plant capable of producing two tons of Rayon yarn per day. This in itself is a high hurdle to take, and, even with the plant built and equipped, success is difficult to achieve. The commercial processes of making Rayon are far from simple. Like all work in the field of chemistry where standard results are essential, absolute and continuous accuracy is demanded in all steps of the process. It is obvious that, in manufacturing a fiber as delicate as a single strand of silk, the perfection of construction and operation must be obtained and maintained in the mechanical equipment. Labor must be trained to acquire a "sense" for handling so fine a product and all details must be watched unceasingly. One chief essential in this industry is the highly skilled technician; and a new group of investors undertaking to start in such a field naturally tries to hire experienced key-position men from the companies already established. These key men, so hired, may be almost perfect in their technique, but the success of the venture is jeopardized by that "almost" and after a laborious start the new enterprise may come to grief. The story of Rayon records many such failures.

#### *The "Viscose" Process and Its Rivals*

The following is a very brief and untechnical description of the so-called "viscose" process, by which some 80 per cent. of the world's Rayon is now produced.

Rayon is largely composed of a substance called "cellulose," as are also cotton and wood and all other vegetable products. The raw stock, either cotton or spruce wood, is "digested" in a steam boiler and the foreign matter removed from the natural cellulose. The mass is then washed free of the digesting chemicals and bleached. The cellulose, in the shape of minute fibers, is pressed into sheets and soaked in a solution of caustic soda for twenty-four hours. The excess liquor is then removed by pressure and the sheets are cut up into crumbs called "alkali cellulose." The crumbs are, by a series of delicate chemical treatments, reduced to a solution of the consistency of honey, known as "viscose." This solution is then put into tanks supplied with pumps and forced by them through so-called spinnerets.

The viscose substance comes from the spinnerets through holes so minute as hardly to be visible to the naked eye. A crude comparison is that of water coming through the openings in the nozzle of a common garden watering can. These tiny streams, anywhere from sixteen to sixty in number, go directly into an acid bath, where they immediately solidify into continuous strands. They are twisted together as fast as they solidify, thus forming the rayon thread, which is wound directly on spools, or led into so-called spin spots, then washed free of acid, bleached if desired, and prepared for shipment to the mill which is destined to weave or knit the material into fabrics or garments.

All through these processes time and temperature considerations are of prime importance. There are three other commercial processes in use to-day, namely: the nitro-cellulose process, this being the one developed by Chardonnet, the cuprammonium process, and the cellulose acetate process. Each has its own particular merits and produces a fiber somewhat different from the others.

#### *Varied Uses*

In the early days of Rayon the threads were coarse and too shiny and harsh, but methods and machines have been greatly refined and the individual strands made finer, producing a result that is far less blatant and more pliable, and, when woven, more nearly resembles silk in feel and appearance. In fact, only an expert can distinguish between the best of Rayon and



silk. Hence, the ordinary pocketbook can now afford many things possessing both beauty and style, which formerly were within the reach of only a limited number of buyers.

New uses are being found daily for this wonderful fiber and the end is nowhere in sight. Its cost is more stable than any of the natural fibers, since its production is mechanically controlled and therefore not subject to the vicissitudes and erratic fluctuations of the natural textiles.

Many people who have used articles made from Rayon have expressed disappointment in its wearing qualities. This, in a large measure, is due to two causes: First, textile mills using Rayon have rushed ahead to capitalize this wonderful fiber and fabricated it into articles for which the particular kind of Rayon used was not wholly suitable. Second, users of the finished articles have not been told how to handle them properly. Housewives know that woolen or silk garments can be ruined by improper laundering. This is equally true of Rayon, but the same rules do not apply. The necessary information will gradually be acquired by the public, and ultimate satisfaction is assured. This applies particularly to garments such as underwear and hosiery, but there are an infinite number of uses to which Rayon can be put where laundering is not a factor, such as draperies, upholstery, millinery, and the like.

#### *Effect on the Cotton Industry*

The statement is frequently heard that the present depression in the cotton industry is due in a large measure to the increased use of Rayon. In the opinion of the writer, this is not true. The amount of Rayon produced in 1925 was only 1½ per cent. of the poundage of cotton consumed. The two principal reasons why cotton mills have been hard pressed to make ends meet recently are the expansion in the industry itself between the years 1911 and 1924, and the swing of fashion which has decreed fewer and lighter garments for women. Let us see the figures.

In 1911 there were in the United States, in round numbers, 30 million spindles in cotton mills; in 1924 there were 37 million, an increase of 23.3 per cent. The population in 1911 was 94 million; in 1924 it was 112 million, an increase of 19.1 per cent.

The increase in spindles is slightly out of proportion, but this is not all. While the increase in spindles was 23.3 per cent. for the period, the increase in cotton consumption was 31 per cent. In other words, the mill owners worked the goose nights as well as days, and the results in golden eggs ran true to form.

#### *Changes in Women's Clothing*

The question of the decreased use of women's clothing needs no demonstrating. Instead of being the cause of trouble for cotton-cloth manufacturers, Rayon appears to have been a life-saver for many mills. One authority, the vice-president of a large New England bank closely allied with cotton manufacturing and himself connected with a number of cotton mills, says:

Rayon has been very helpful to many of the cloth mills of New England, particularly those making fine-combed yarn dress goods. It has enabled them to get further away than ever before from the plain, standard goods on which Southern mills have a great advantage, and to turn out a greater variety of goods than at any other time. Their designing ability and skill in manufacturing quality goods offset the Southern advantage in low production costs.

In originating new designs or in executing skilfully new patterns submitted to them, New England mills, of course, not only have advantage over the South through their longer experience in manufacturing, but also through their nearness to the style center of the country, New York.

Some time ago a New Bedford manufacturer told me that he believed that New Bedford cloth mills are spending more for silk and rayon than for cotton, and so from this standpoint the cloth industry in New Bedford is more a silk-and-rayon industry than a cotton industry. As you are doubtless aware, some of the yarn mills in New Bedford have installed weaving departments, and are making rayon-and-cotton goods as well as all-cotton goods and many of the print cloth mills of Fall River have been going on to rayon mixtures to an increasing extent.

#### *Rayon's Part in Manufactures*

Similar opinions are expressed by brokerage houses dealing in New England mill stocks, and by several of New York's leading cotton-cloth brokers who have for years been selling the product from New England's fine goods mills.

This is not equally true of such cotton mills as cannot weave, being equipped to produce only yarns, since the use of Rayon and silk has seriously curtailed the use of cotton in the finer fabrics. Mills that were formerly large and successful makers of cotton yarns for stockings are badly hit

and in many instances are to-day only a few jumps ahead of the sheriff. Fashion and style are responsible here.

#### CONSUMPTION OF RAYON BY INDUSTRIES

Per cent used in	1918	1919	1920	1921	1922	1923
Hosiery.....	40	28	25	23	24	22
Knit.....	17	17	21	29	26	25
Silk.....	18	18	13	12	11	15
Cotton.....	13	13	10	9	10	11
Underwear.....	—	1	1	2	4	5
Braids.....	5	13	14	10	11	10
Upholstery goods	2	2	2	2	2	2
Plush.....	2	3	3	1	1	2
Wool.....	—	1	1	1	1	1
Miscellaneous...	3	4	10	11	10	7

The figures for the years 1924 and 1925, are not yet available but it is a fair assumption that the proportions have not varied much. It will be noted that only about 11 per cent. of the Rayon produced in and imported to this country is consumed by cotton mills.

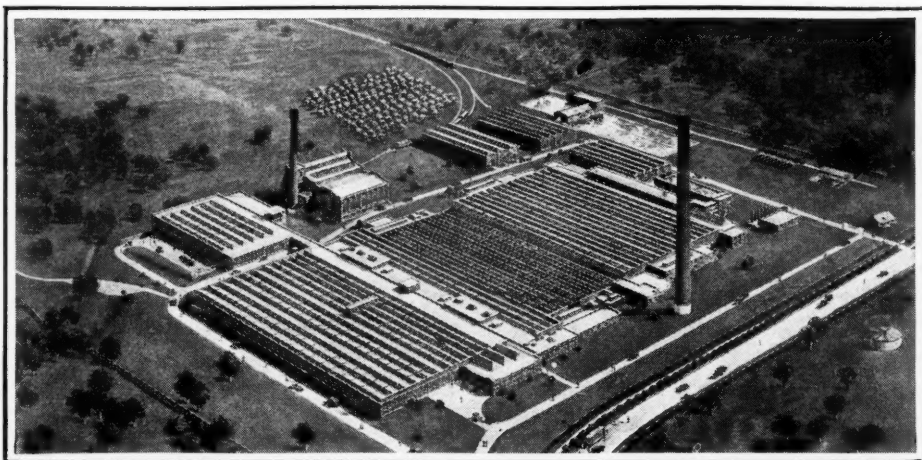
All industries are to-day more than ever subject to revolutionary developments, and the use of Rayon well illustrates this hazard. Manufacturers must keep awake to these trends.

The Amoskeag Mill in Manchester, N. H., probably the largest company of its kind in the world, has lately put in a Rayon producing department. An old established New York State hosiery yarn mill is also climbing on the band wagon by moving its cotton machinery South and changing the

New York factory over to make Rayon. We are witnessing the beginning of a new world, a synthetic world, and an army of chemists is working quietly and unceasingly, pulling things to pieces and reconstructing others from the particles.

Rayon, the counterpart of silk, is made from wood. If silk, then why not cotton? Why not wool? Why not wheat? The question is no longer "why not," but rather "when"? A well-known motor-car manufacturer is reported to have censured the humble cow, and characterized her as being a wasteful and uneconomic producer of milk. He has predicted that it will soon be possible to pour out in a steady stream milk produced synthetically in a factory, just as he now pours out cars assembled from their component parts on an endless moving platform. I, for one, would not say that, in making this prediction, he is "talking through his hat." In 1914, when the war deprived us of Germany's dyes, the textile industry on this side of the water was in a sad plight. To-day our American-made synthetic dyes cover all the colors of a thousand rainbows, and offer many shades far lovelier and more lasting than any found in nature.

Rayon is something more than an achievement in textiles. It is another positive proof to us that science has never heard of the phrase "it can't be done."



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#### A NEW RAYON MANUFACTURING PLANT BEING ERECTED AT PARKERSBURG, W. VA.

(The plant is designed to employ about 3000 persons in the making of the new silk-like, man-made fiber. It will be operated by the Viscose Company, said to be the largest Rayon manufacturers in the world, who already have vast factories in Pennsylvania, Virginia and West Virginia)

# THE ITALIAN REVOLUTION

BY FRANK H. SIMONDS

## I. Europe's Present State of Mind

**L**AST month I wrote from Geneva describing the session of the League of Nations, which was to have been the occasion of the entrance of Germany and, in fact, proved to be a futile and rather foolish disclosure of European incapacity and League inadequacy. Since that time I have been in Vienna, Budapest, and Rome, and have met and talked with many of the conspicuous statesmen and journalists of Austria, Hungary, and Italy. As was the case in France and Britain also, I found that all around the periphery of Italy, indeed in all of Europe, the dominating circumstance, the absorbingly interesting and disquieting circumstance, was the present condition and the future purposes of Fascism, of Mussolini and his movement.

You cannot stay long in any part of Europe without feeling that by comparison with the Italian question all others are of minor importance, so far as the international situation is concerned. France, Britain, Germany, all three countries are facing terrifically absorbing domestic problems. All these problems, too, are the ultimate fruits of the war: Britain with her unemployment, with her depressed trade, with her acute coal crisis; France with the never-ending crisis revolving around her falling franc and her mounting inflation; Germany with trade depression as great as the British, with unemployment greater, and with a famine of capital which is in her case almost unique.

Moreover, all things considered, you will find that much the same mentality is to be encountered in all three of these great powers, which bore the major burdens of the World War. There is the same utter weariness with the idea of war, with the circumstances of military imperialism, with the language and the manner of the old Europe of the days before the supreme catastrophe. Make all due allowances for varying conditions of race, experience, and interest; and, nevertheless, talking with a

Frenchman, a German, or a Briton, you will find that the same state of mind exists and the same fundamental desire for peace.

Faced with the frightful alternative of a new war or some real adjustment, Frenchmen and Germans are slowly but surely working toward some form of peaceful adjustment. I met at Geneva many Germans whom I saw in Berlin in 1925, and also many French friends whom I have known during and since the war years. Seeing these men separately and together, I could not escape the conclusion that the dangers of a new Franco-German conflict were relatively small, and that despite all the existing and possible bases of misunderstanding, the German and the Frenchman had both excluded war as a possible solution of these questions and both, not with enthusiasm, not perhaps with real liking, but with a sense of the inevitableness of it, were discussing the organization of Franco-German relations on a basis of peace.

The element of passion—pre-war, war and post-war passion—has gone out of the problem for both people. Dislike and distrust remains, must certainly remain for a long time, distrust and dislike capable of being momentarily whipped up into passionate recrimination, but at worst unlikely to do more than temporarily interrupt the steady march toward peaceful adjustment. And of course the same is to be said with even greater emphasis of the British. By and large they have recognized the peaceful spirit which exists both in Germany and in France, and they have no greater desire than to promote that peace without which British existence cannot be continued.

France, Germany, Britain, many small countries like Belgium and Holland, Switzerland and all Scandinavia, are moving in about the same direction with something of the same underlying state of mind. In the great countries there is an equal desire for peace and for international calm, an equal perception that modern war means

disaster for all participants. For the victors and the vanquished of the last war much the same mentality is now discoverable, because in reality both the victors and the vanquished suffer from about the same degree of misfortune and misery resulting from war and both perceive that a new war would be more terrible than any incidental advantage it might bring.

There is one Europe, then, made up of the three great contestants of the West, including many smaller states, some neutrals, some belligerents, which is evolving in the same general direction, retaining its fundamental institutions, the parliamentary system of government, the representative democracy as we know it. In none of these countries is the system working well; in all there is a great and perhaps growing perception that some modification, some improvement, perhaps radical, must be found, if the orderly life of the nation, its business, and its mechanism are to be conducted efficiently. But nevertheless, in all, there is so far a complete rejection of the idea of change by revolution, just as there is an equally complete rejection of the idea of pursuing international objectives by policies which may involve war.

Now, there is a second Europe, which results from one of the two great revolutions of our own time, namely the Russian. Just where Russia is now moving no one in Europe quite knows. It is true, however, that even the Russian revolution, the Bolshevik movement, takes on to-day a far less threatening aspect than it did only a few years ago. Russia in its Soviet phase is still a threat and a menace, because the Russians have not renounced their purpose to carry doctrines of class warfare and proletariat domination beyond their own frontiers where and when possible.

Nevertheless, at home and abroad there is the recognition that for the present, at least, the Soviet advance has been arrested completely. Whatever Russia may be doing and planning to do in Asia, however active the Soviet agents may be in France, where the domestic situation is full of doubt and peril, we at least are not to-day in the immediate presence of a movement which aims by force and arms, by invasion and war, to spread its gospel. It has abandoned direct action internationally, and as a consequence relative peace reigns on all the long stretch of frontiers from the Gulf of Finland to the Black Sea.

Yet this is in a measure a truce, and the very character of the Russian purpose makes it impossible for the immediate neighbors of Russia to share the state of mind of the group of powers which I have already named. Poland and Rumania, particularly, have no expansive or imperialistic aim; like Czechoslovakia, their supreme aspiration is to retain what they have and to organize what now belongs to them. Yet under the shadow of the Russian bulk they are not permitted to lay aside arms or adopt any far-reaching policy of readjustment. In these nations the fire of nationalism, which flamed forth and actually called them into existence, persists because there remain dangers which still threaten.

There is then, a second mentality which one may call Eastern European, as one might call the first Western. It grows out of the particular circumstance of the region. It is in part the result of the past history of the peoples recently liberated; it is in part the unmistakable consequence of dangers which remain real and even oppressive. It is, if I may venture the phrase, defensive nationalism, nationalism which remains at something like concert pitch, not because of any desire to make aggressive war, to acquire new lands, but because it is vitally conscious of enduring dangers.

At the moment this spirit of defensive nationalism carries no real menace to peace. It does not express itself in threats or claims, it does not adopt any provocative language or policy. But it retains arms, it continues to live and think in terms which are different from those of Western Europe. If one could conceive of some new Eastern Locarno which might bind all countries to a respect of the status quo, if one could conceive of a Russia whose pledge would be valid and could be accepted, it would not be hard to imagine that in a time relatively short there would be something like an approximation of the Western mentality in the Eastern confines.

Just as strongly as the west of Europe longs for peace to recover material prosperity which has been lost, to reorganize national existence in its domestic circumstances, Eastern Europe, Russia perhaps excluded, desires peace in order to organize the new political existence which the war gave to various nationalities. But because the promise of this is far less convincing in the East than in the West, nations continue to arm, to organize their military



forces, to think and talk invariably in terms of possible conflict.

But there is a third Europe which has little or nothing in common with the other two, and this is Italy. Italy, like Russia, has passed through a revolution; a revolution as profound, and in certain aspects as violent, as the rough-going Russian. Italy has swept aside all the circumstances of the old order quite as completely as Russia. Italy has demolished the whole structure of parliamentary and representative democracy; it has adopted a dictatorship as absolute as that in Russia, and has found in Mussolini a master and a leader as outstanding and all-embracing as was Lenin himself.

And the Italian revolution, like the Russian, is not and cannot be limited to

narrow national frontiers. It has had a domestic phase, but that phase is over. It is entering upon an international phase. It is quite as consciously as the Russian or the French Revolution undertaking to carry its gospel and its solution, its revolution, to the rest of the world; because it believes just as firmly that in this gospel, in the fundamental doctrines of that revolution, lies the real answer to the problems of the next century.

And all Europe, west and east, is at last awake to the significance, to the importance, and to something of the possible peril, of the Italian phenomenon. It has become the dominating consideration in all Foreign Offices; it fills all the international horizon of Europe to-day as the Russian Revolution did half a dozen years ago.

## II. What Fascismo Aimed to Accomplish

What, then, is this Italian Revolution? What does it mean, what may it mean to Europe, to the world, to the peace of mankind in the oncoming generation? These were questions which I asked myself with increasing earnestness as I traveled from capital to capital and as I encountered the representatives of all Europe at Geneva. And these are the questions I shall try to answer here and now.

Perhaps the best fashion in which I can set forth the Italian view of the revolution is to quote with such exactness as is possible the comments of some of the most competent exponents, rather seeking to combine the salient statements of all than to differentiate—although one must in all frankness say that the differences are relatively slight, for the main body of doctrine and the major opinions are practically identical. If you ask one of the leaders, this is perhaps an accurate summary of what he will say:

"There have been in our own time two great revolutions, the Russian and the Italian, Bolshevism and Fascismo. Bolshevism, however, in substantially all things represents the antithesis of Fascismo. In the nineteenth century Socialism was a great and noble movement. It was a conception which had as its objective the improving of the condition of the masses.

"But Socialism made three fatal blunders which doomed it; and Fascismo, in its essence, undertakes to achieve the ends of Socialism while avoiding these blunders.

These mistakes were, first of all, the adoption of the doctrine of class warfare—that is, of Marxian Socialism—which has been expressed in the Russian revolution in all its destructive folly. The second of these blunders was internationalism, the denial of the sense of race and nationality, which ran counter to the profoundest instinct in the hearts of the masses of people in every country. Finally, Socialism denied the right of property, which was only a selfish and stupid device of the people without property to acquire what others possessed.

"Fascismo, on the contrary, had its origin in nationality. It was conceived by a group of men at the close of the first decade in the present century, who were disgusted and wearied by the corruption, the futility, the innate viciousness of political life and institutions which existed at the moment in Italy. It was these men who forced Italy into the World War, believing that the shock would be beneficial to the nation, that it must have the profound, disturbing upheaval which the war would bring.

"After the war, however, it was Mussolini who brought to the movement the great contribution borrowed from the original and noble conception of Socialism. It was Mussolini who saw that there must be coöperation, not conflict, between the separate elements in the nation, that when the capitalist and the worker fought, not only did both suffer, but the nation suffered

also. Thus at the bottom of Fascismo lies the conception of coöperation. Moreover, even in its early stage Fascismo took what was then the very courageous step of affirming the right of property. The three principles which thus underlie Fascismo are nationalism, coöperation, and the right of property.

"The struggle of Fascismo was directed against all the corrupt and outworn dogmas and institutions of another age. First of all, parliamentarism which had become useless and worse than useless in Italy, the whole political system which was corrupt and inefficient, we set out to smash; and we have smashed it. Moreover, when you see how parliamentarism is working in France, you realize that at no distant time France must follow the Italian example or perish. In England the same system is breaking down, and I do not hesitate to forecast that even in your America, with its absurd Senate stupidly interfering with all orderly procedure, the same change must come, perhaps much later, but just as surely.

"Now for the old system, which was obsolete, we sought to substitute something truly representative. We said to all the branches of national life, the bankers and the capitalists, the workers and mechanics, 'organize your unions, your syndicates, choose your best men to head them, let them represent you with the government. But the State is over all, the State is to decide, to rule, to watch, to guide, to arbitrate, to direct.' So in time we shall replace our existing legislature with this new form of representation. To-day the transition has not been accomplished and the legislature exists, but it is nothing.

"As we fought parliamentarism we fought the press. It had ceased to perform its rightful function. It had overstepped limits and we had to smash it, to make it an instrument making for national unity not a force making for disruption, for chaos, for corruption. To-day in Italy there is no opposition press. Then we fought free-masonry, which with you in America is something quite different from us, something respectable and decent, as ours was corrupt and dangerous.

"There, briefly, are the facts of the Italian Revolution. We have destroyed the system, the forms, all the old corrupt, inefficient, and hopeless survivals of another age. We have crushed internationalism, liberalism, free-masonry ruthlessly, violently. We

have saved the nation from the ruin which confronted it. An elite, a group of honest, fearless, utterly unselfish men, with no other dream than that of making their country great and strong and achieving for it the prosperity at home and the prestige and position abroad to which it is entitled, have done this.

"Remember that for fourteen centuries Italy has known no national rule, save in the one little corner of Savoy which had a native dynasty. We have had foreign rule; we have been divided, weak, helpless; there has been no Italy. But now there is a new Italy, a young Italy, a strong Italy. We have been the first people to recover from the moral effects of the war. We have escaped from the depression and the collapse. We are the one people who, were it necessary, would spring to arms without hesitation, without the surviving trace of defeatism."

So much, then, for the domestic phase of the Italian Revolution, the results—the material, tangible, and obvious results—of which I shall discuss in a moment. But then one would be almost sure to ask, having in mind the general European apprehension as to the Italian phenomenon: "But whither is Italy going now? Granted, and it is obvious, that the domestic victory has been won, that Fascismo is an established fact and Mussolini undisputed master, in much the position of Napoleon after the First Empire had been proclaimed, what does he, what does Fascimo, purpose for the future and beyond Italian frontiers?"

Again the answer would be, I think, something like this:

"We are a people of forty-odd millions crowded into one of the small corners of the earth, which is rigidly limited by natural barriers. We are growing at the rate of 700,000 annually. We have neither colonies, raw materials, nor any of the necessities of a great power such as we are now. Great Britain, with only a few more millions of people, occupies a third of the earth. The French have great colonies. Hitherto the United States received many millions of our population, but now you have closed your doors; and if South America does likewise, what can we do but suffocate?"

"We must have colonies, we must expand. But when the war was over, our Allies, who owed their victory to our entrance into the war, by secret treaties

denied us all share in the territorial gains. Britain took more land, France more land, and we got nothing. Italy wants peace, just as every other country and people desire peace, but peace with the capacity to live, to develop, to expand, peace under conditions which are tolerable.

"For centuries we have been nothing. Even after we obtained our unity nations disregarded us, spit upon us, humiliated us. When we were at war with Turkey, and we seized some French ships which were carrying airplanes to Tunis for the Turks to use against us, Poincaré addressed to us a note which threatened war if we did not loose the ships. To-day the French would take a different tone.

"You say European nations are regarding us with apprehension. Well, they are right. They have never had to consider us, to think of us. They have insulted us, ignored us, they have divided the good things among themselves, and now at last they see a new power rising, a new factor. Naturally they are disturbed. Of course they don't like it. But what of that? They can no longer keep Italy down, and it disturbs them. How can you as an American conceive of the fashion in which we have been treated by other peoples. Now they know that a new Italy is rising, and they are disturbed.

"What about Germany and Mussolini's recent declarations? Can you conceive of anything more stupid than the Germans have done. We have been kind to them since the war, we were ready to join hands with them, against France, we were willing that they should go to Vienna. But, instead, they began a campaign about the handful of Germans inside our new frontiers. This handful are the descendants and survival of one of the many invasions. They live inside our door. We have taken at last our door, and we mean to see to it that there are Italians inside the door, so that it shall not be opened to any new invader.

"Why do the Germans, who have done far worse things to the Danes, to the Poles, in Alsace-Lorraine, to whose minorities all over Europe worse things are being done, make an issue with us over the Upper Adige? We have not killed anyone, we have not abused anyone. In the old days the foreigners who ruled Italy used to kill our people, to hang them wholesale.

"And England, why is she so stupid as not to perceive that we are her natural ally?

We can close the Mediterranean to her. With our air fleets we can make communication with Gibraltar and Suez impossible. We could hold the Mediterranean for her, and we could harm her as France cannot. Will she not in time see that we are her natural ally?

"As for France, there is no language to describe the manner in which the French have insulted us and outraged our feelings. You ask about Tunis. Why should France, whose population does not increase, which has no colonists to export, exclude us from a land near our shores which has already a hundred thousand Italians, twice as many as French inhabitants, which Italians have developed and are developing? Why should France have Syria and close the doors to us in Anatolia, in the Near East? France is an old nation, a decaying nation. Italy is young, strong, she has the millions to colonize with. Is France wise to oppose Italy everywhere?"

If you ask an Italian his view of disarmament, he will smile a little, cynically, and affirm that Italy is as sincere as anyone else in desiring the arrival of the millennium, but that there is no real desire anywhere to disarm and Italy will not permit herself to be the victim of the hypocrisy of other nations. If you ask about the League of Nations the answer might be this, which came from one spokesman of Fascismo in a high place:

"Well, the League exists, and one must make the best of it, one must do with it what one can. But if it were to do over again, if we were to share in the making of a new League, I do not believe we would join. No! We Italians would not be interested in making one; but there it is, it is a fact."

Underlying this response, of course, would be the fact that every Italian looks hopefully and confidently to the day when the status quo, the territorial position in the world, is to be modified in Italy's favor; and the League stands solidly against any changes, save by unanimous consent forever impossible. Thus the League, in reality, constitutes a barrier in the pathway of Italian expansion.

Finally, if you ask the Fascist views on war, you may perhaps get this wholly astounding answer:

"Well, there always have been wars, there undoubtedly always will be wars. One must believe that since this is the case

there is some biological explanation. And, after all, a people condemned to eternal peace would decay, lose something of their vitality. Wars do kill a certain number of

people, but they are not an unmixed evil. They do certain things which are good for a race. Without war the world would probably be a far worse planet."

### III. The Achievement

Fascismo is, then, revolution. Not to understand this is to miss the whole significance of one of the most striking phenomena of modern times. It is not merely revolution but it is violent revolution, or more exactly, it is a revolution which has had a violent phase and is now quite consciously seeking to pass from the period of violence to that of reorganization, to the consolidation of the victory which has already been won. Moreover, the revolution has been against things which we in America and the majorities in Britain, France, and Germany still believe to be the basis of democracy.

What is the history of the movement, so far as it has present and future importance for the world? The war was for Italy a terrific strain. Russia, with an even less soundly organized national existence, broke down in mid-channel. In 1917 the whole national fabric was swept away, and, after brief hesitation and futile experiments with western democratic ideas and ideals, surrendered itself to the full fury of the Bolshevik movement, which retains control to the present hour despite evolutions within the ranks of the Soviets themselves.

In Italy the national organization just barely lived through the war. It was desperately shaken by the terrible disaster of Caporetto, which was in itself significant of the state of national disintegration. There was the amazing national rally at the Piave, and later came the great victory of Vittoria Veneto, which enabled Italy to emerge from the war victorious, and victorious by her own efforts. In a certain sense, perhaps, the national spirit of a new Italy had its birth in this period.

But after the war the governing powers were again disclosed as hopeless and helpless. At the Paris peace conference, Italy was isolated and Italian claims to share in the fruits of the victory were, in the minds of all Italians, shamefully ignored. Not alone was Italy denied possession of Fiume, by Mr. Wilson's direct interposition, but all the rewards abroad, colonies and mandates, fell to France and

Great Britain, while Italy had to content herself with the possession of strategically invaluable but industrially unimportant strips of land along the Alps and the head of the Adriatic. She saw the great powers, whose ally she had been, uniting to create a great Slav State on the eastern shores of the Adriatic, although the Slavs, the Croats, and the Slovenes had been the fiercest opponents of Italian troops.

Out of the peace conference Italy emerged humiliated, shamed, and with a profound sense of betrayal. Moreover, at home this feeling contributed to the rapid spread of disorder and disintegration. From 1919 to 1922 the history of Italy is one of rapid and almost unlimited disintegration. Communism developed and laid hands upon everything. National life was paralyzed. Disorder was on all sides. Presently the communist workers laid hands upon the factories and, evicting the owners, undertook to conduct the industries by what were in fact Soviet methods.

Meanwhile a supine government sat by with hands folded, seeking always to avoid conflict, to ride the storm by permitting it to drive the national craft wherever it willed. There was disorder, hunger, suffering; but beyond all else there was a sense of domestic collapse following close upon the disclosure of utter incapacity and failure abroad. Italy was reduced to little more than a geographical expression, to domestic anarchy and to foreign impotence. Britain and France dominated Europe when they agreed; and when they disagreed Europe was condemned to chaos. But in no case was the voice of Italy listened to, or the rights or interests of Italy considered.

Then four years ago, after the violent but relatively restricted explosions over Fiume in which D'Annunzio played his theatrical part, there suddenly burst forth the Fascisti movement which had been more or less organizing since 1919, but only now found expression. It was, in its essence the determined effort of a group of able and utterly ruthless men to save their country from what seemed utter and



complete ruin by making war upon the men and methods which were held responsible for the national collapse. It was the movement of men as ruthless in their methods as the old Committee of Public Safety which saved France and the French Revolution in 1792.

The conception was to seize the reins of power by force, by the organized strength of the old soldiers of the war, of the youth which was rising to new manhood and stood appalled at the ruin of their country. It was a patriotic, essentially national movement; it was a desperate effort by desperate men to rescue a country from impending ruin. But to do this it was necessary to destroy, to crush, to smash, to coerce, and to conquer: to break the back of Communism by what was nothing more nor less than a reign of terror: to defeat and drive from the country or physically eliminate not alone the men who led the Communist party, but all those who still stood as defenders of the parliamentary régime.

And what had to be done was done. The march upon Rome headed by Mussolini, four years ago, was the decisive episode in the struggle. Come at last to Rome at the head of an armed, determined, and violent mob, which had—to be sure, its elements of discipline—Mussolini was met at the gates by the King and thus at a stroke all the machinery of government passed into his hands. Nor did he shrink from using this power to the uttermost. Parliament was crushed to his purpose and in reality ceased to exist save as it submissively registered the dictator's will.

It is of little use now to recount the story of the period of terrorism which accompanied the triumph of Fascismo. The men who headed the movement were convinced that the end justified the means, and the end was the salvation of the country. In the pursuit of their objective they shrank neither from brutality nor even from murder. The reign of terror which accompanied this struggle had many points of resemblance with the Russian. People were beaten, property was destroyed, newspapers were sacked and burned, men of all sorts and descriptions were either assaulted and physically beaten into helpless submission or driven from the country.

But in viewing this phase, which does violence to all our Anglo-Saxon conceptions, one must not fail to note that it was, on the whole, despite the inevitable excesses, some-

thing far different from any merely selfish or ambitious scheme of Mussolini or of his associates to lay hands upon power for personal aggrandizement. Underlying an instinct in the whole affair was the profoundest sense of national service. It was just as clearly a patriotic and a national movement as those other struggles of the last century against the foreigner, the *risorgimento* of nearly a century ago. One must recall the words of Cavour, "What would the world say of us if we did for ourselves what we do for our country?"

And, as it advanced, Fascismo fired the hearts of millions of men and women. It was unmistakably the movement of a small minority at the start. It was relatively slow, perhaps, in rousing the heart and the spirit of the nation. Its physical conquests were far easier than its spiritual, and in a measure it failed to enlist the men who represented the old European conception of liberalism. Its appeal was to the youth, and more and more the youth were fired by the songs, the spirit, the whole patriotic fervor of the drive.

Ultimately, however, not only did Fascismo triumph, but it broke every element and every nucleus of opposition. To-day there is only one will in Italy, there is only one fact, there is only one force, and that is Fascism. Some have been converted, others have been cowed. Fear still silences what might be an opposition, and violence is always at hand and ready to impress and to destroy those who do not follow.

Such being the case, what shall one say for the material achievement of this violent revolution? What has Fascismo done for Italy which might excuse, palliate, perhaps even justify the excesses and the crimes of which, to our way of thinking, it has been guilty? Here the record is clear. You cannot have known Italy even a little in the years before and during the war without perceiving that a new spirit, a new condition, has come about.

The whole business of national life has been re-ordered. Where there was chaos in the finances, there is system and order. The budget has been balanced by a drastic and heroic handling of appropriations. The public utilities have been put upon a basis of efficiency. The railways, which were notoriously bad, have not only been re-organized on lines which command American admiration but, what is even more impressive, they have been made to pay

and to contribute to the national treasury, not draw from it huge sums wasted in the maintenance of unnecessary employees.

There are no strikes and no conflicts between capital and labor. The population is working and unemployment does not exist. From one end of Italy to the other you have the sense of a nation at work, if not prosperous in our American sense, at least in far better posture than ever in modern Italian history. The Government is giving its attention and its interest to vast works of development. There is, speaking materially, a sense of order, of progress, of prosperity. What Napoleon did for France, when he had at last seized control from the hands of the leaders of the French Revolution, Mussolini has done for Italy. Moreover, like Napoleon, he has called the best men, the competent men from every branch of national life to render service to the State.

On one point you will find every foreigner who has known Italy at all in the past completely convinced. You will hear but one opinion, and that is that Fascismo and Mussolini, its great leader, have lifted Italy from the lowest depths of national disintegration and chaos to the most impressive level of national efficiency, material well-being, and sound and systematized national life. There is a new Italy in a very true and real sense. There is a new Italy which is a striking contrast to the old. There is a new sense of national self-respect and national self-confidence, of something young and strong and determined beginning, of something marching with very definite objectives in mind. There is a sense of national certainty which you do not find anywhere else in Europe at the present hour.

Whatever one may think of the ultimate consequences, for the Italian people and for Europe, of this Fascismo revolution, one must, in all justice, perceive that, whatever its methods, its excesses, its crimes—for there have been crimes, crimes of violence which must shock all Westerners like ourselves—it has galvanized a nation, it has in some mystic and magic fashion roused latent force and latent strength in a whole people. Italy to-day is the liveliest thing in Europe. It is, one must also concede, however reluctantly, the one country which is governed in any real sense, the one country in which the business of national life is not paralyzed by struggles among various elements within the nation, by the ineptitudes

and supineness of the politicians and the political parties.

To believe that Mussolini is an empty adventurer, that the men about him are charlatans or worse, that Fascismo itself is a passing madness, a mere fever born of the war, that it is something that would, for example, pass rapidly, collapse and disappear if Mussolini were to die or to be murdered—this seems to me to make a cardinal mistake. That might have been true three years ago, perhaps two. It might have been true at any time before Fascismo, having gained absolute power, had displayed a capacity to govern, had revealed something like a positive genius for national organization and administration. But Italy has now enjoyed for a considerable time the actual fruits of Fascismo control, and they are real and impressive fruits.

Moreover, Mussolini himself and the men who surround him are ceaselessly working to consolidate the victory, to create a machine and a system which will endure beyond their time. And just as deliberately, they are seeking now to escape from the area of violence and of force and to restore orderly procedure in national life. Every appeal that was uttered on the occasion of the recent attempt of the demented British woman upon the Duce's life was for order and discipline. Mussolini's first words were against all violence.

In its national aspect, then, the Fascismo Revolution presents two utterly contrasting aspects. It has had all the attendant circumstances of violent and brutal revolution. It has hesitated at nothing to crush the opposition, to smash what was certainly the majority. And it has numbered among its victims men of light and learning, of character and intelligence, precisely as it has made short work with the tools on the old and notoriously vile and corrupt political machine. It has strewed distinguished exiles all over Europe, whose voices continue to sound against Mussolini and his methods. It has silenced the press, crushed the parliament, committed itself to force and even to terrorism.

But by contrast, those who have seized power have used it with intelligence, with wisdom, in the interests of the nation. They have rescued their country from the very depths of chaos and anarchy, and they have brought prosperity to the high

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and low equally. They have awakened a national sense and perhaps a national soul. Materially the thing has been a proven success, and morally one cannot fail to feel a certain thrill at the outward evidences of a deep and still-spreading sense of personal participation and responsibility.

I am myself, after all, an old liberal, a child of Anglo-Saxon democracy. I have been born and bred in our American conception of government by the ballot-box and by the majority. Force, violence, terrorism, even murder, these things made

accessories to government and the basis for political control, offend me too deeply to enlist any real sympathy. The best and wisest dictatorship seems an offense against the fundamental principles of our own democratic tradition. Yet, by contrast, I find it impossible to withhold my testimony as to the marvelous regeneration which Fascismo has accomplished within Italy, to the transformation which has taken place in the country since I last saw it, and above all, to the contrast Italy to-day presents when compared with Britain or with France or with Germany.

## IV. What Will Mussolini Do Next?

But there remains one question which one must face frankly in dealing with this Facismo revolution; and it is the question all Europe is asking with growing apprehension: "Whither, after all, is Mussolini going, now?" You must see that with his domestic revolution accomplished, with his hold consolidated, he has still to face the tremendous problem of an aroused, an exigent national spirit. He has fired the spirit and the imagination and even the passions of a young and rising generation with the faith and the will to make their country far greater, indeed to revive the Roman tradition.

Nothing in all the Italian phenomenon is more striking than the contrast between Rome and Paris, London, Berlin, Vienna—any capital which I know in Europe—in certain very important details. In no capital save the Italian will you see flags, uniforms, will you hear patriotic phrases uttered in passionate emphasis. From the Thames to the Danube the people of the nations which have fought are, for the time being at least, done with all the things which express nationalism, which disclose national aspirations expressed in terms of foreign adventure. France, Britain, Germany are done with the thoughts of war; they are tired, weary, almost exasperated by the mere sight of the trappings of martial splendor.

But in Italy, it is utterly different. Rome gives the impression of a city at the hour of mobilization, or it did at the precise moment when the attempt upon Mussolini's life supplied the cause for an explosion of national sentiment. You see uniforms and more uniforms; the streets

are filled with flags as American streets are not, even on the Fourth of July. Men by the thousands march, singing songs, the youth, girls and boys, gather under flags to have their own demonstrations. In addition to the uniforms of the regular soldiers, there are those of the black shirts everywhere.

There is a sense of an excited, an exacerbated nationalism. Italy is seeking something, demanding something, intent upon obtaining something which she has not. Her will is expressed with vehemence and even violence abroad. The eyes of her people are turning in all directions, searching for some way for the nation to expand. Colonies, new territories, an imperial future—this dream fills the press and finds expression on every occasion. There is a fever in the air and in the atmosphere.

Mussolini's trip to Africa, his great Tripolitan adventure, upon which he embarked, escorted by the whole war fleet of Italy, was no more than a dramatic, a theatrical expression of the Italian sentiment. It was an obviously calculated means of concentrating national attention upon the outside world, upon the Mediterranean which is the *Mare Nostrum* of Italian comment. Italy must expand, Italy must find new lands for her teeming millions. Italy must be strong, respected, feared abroad. She is a great, new, young nation, surrounded by old nations which are decaying and yet hold lands which they cannot populate, and close their doors to Italian immigrants, while Italy faces the danger of suffocation at home.

In all the rest of Europe, that is, of the West at least, and even in central

Europe, even in the stormy Balkans, men are discussing and thinking about the organization of peace and the approach to disarmament. There is a profound movement toward internationalism, as contrasted with nationalism in the old Nineteenth Century sense, over all the Continent. Men and women begin to perceive that through the violent expression of conflicting aspirations there is no peace to be had and that new war means complete European destruction. Nationalism, militarism, armies, guns, flags, ships are at a low price all over the rest of Europe.

I do not mean to suggest that the millennium has arrived or is near at hand either in France or Germany. The British mean to keep the supreme fleet, the French will not now abolish their army, and the Germans would to-morrow construct a new army had they the power. But underlying the sentiments of France, Germany and Britain, with respect of armaments, is the fundamental conception of security. It is not to embark upon new conquests, to add new territories, to achieve new conquests that France or Britain maintain ships and divisions. Even in Germany, there is a very wide appreciation of the idea expressed in Locarno that territorial readjustments, however inevitable, must come by negotiation and not by conflict.

"Supreme hypocrisy," the Italian would say of all this. Yet I must testify that my reactions in discussing questions of armament with Frenchmen, Germans, and Britons were well-nigh identical. The army or the navy as a means of carrying out national policy, of advancing national interest, the conception of war as an extension of policy, nowhere appeared. Men clung to arms as defensive weapons, as the single certain fashion of protecting national existence. They regarded disarmament as a remote and perhaps a totally unrealizable aspiration; but there was no enthusiasm, no joy in the possession, and no purpose to employ the weapon save in defense.

But in Italy the army and the navy are popular as the expression of the power to advance national purpose. Mussolini is building a powerful army, and he is sparing no pains to render efficient and effective the small navy which the Washington Conference allows. Italy and her own finances for the present limit her, too. In the conception of the Fascismo leaders and in the conception of the nation which is

following them, the Italian army and the Italian Navy are coming to have something very like the meaning which these weapons had for the Germans before the war.

To-day Italy is a volcano of inflamed nationalism, of aroused patriotism. It responds with ever-increasing violence to the recurrent Mussolini declarations which present Italy as resurgent Rome and hold out the prospect of repeating in the Mediterranean the glories which were Latin. There is a fire and frenzy about this patriotism. There is a flame in its expression, which instantly attracts attention. There is something which is different from anything I have ever seen anywhere in Europe since the war; something which explains to me the very great and patiently growing apprehension in all European capitals.

Can Mussolini, great man as he certainly is, control and canalize this enormous and explosive patriotic force which he has aroused? Can he lead it into safer channels and direct it to the development of national resources? Can he escape the ultimate blunders and excesses of Napoleon, having done for his country the same great things at home which Napoleon did for France? Or will he, in the end, be the captive of the forces which he has roused and loosed? Will he be swept in by the very magnificence of the spirit which he has in part created and in totality expressed? Will the need at home of success abroad lead him along the pathway which ultimately ends in war?

The problem of European peace or war at the moment lies all in the answer to this question, as I see it. France, Britain, Germany are settling down to peaceful relations and to international readjustments which more and more approximate normal and rational existence. Even Russia has laid aside the old conception of conquest of capitalistic Europe by force and sees the indirect method bearing scantier fruit. Nationalism all over the Continent is sinking to limits which make of it a domestic and not a foreign problem. The will for peace, the necessity for peace, the recognition that war is a disaster for all participants is spreading and dominating in Europe. Armies, soldiers, generals, all the panoply of war are at a discount.

But by contrast Italy is a flaming volcano of passionate and aspiring nationalism, of explosive patriotism. It is filled and thrilled with a new sense of national power



and virility. Alone of European nations, Italy has found a leader and under him an organization which satisfies the nation's conception of what is right. And this young, new, passionately patriotic and self-confident Italy is demanding for itself a place in the sun and a field for expansion commensurate with its own notion of its needs. But where is there such a field, save across the boundaries of other nations and how attainable save by war, war from which Italians alone do not shrink obviously and I believe sincerely?

Mussolini has now the power of Napoleon, so far as his own country is concerned, and he has so far addressed his country and the world in the language of

Napoleon. He can lead it whither he chooses, but can he now fail to lead it somewhere? All Europe asks this question. For Europe, Fascismo is the supreme and the single problem since Bolshevism collapsed inwardly. The victory of Fascismo at home is no longer open to question. Europe now waits to know what are to be the purposes and the methods of Fascismo abroad. And, as I have said, Europe is waiting in anxiety and in apprehension. As Mussolini more and more approaches the Napoleonic stature, and as he more and more adopts the Napoleonic phrase, European memory is stirred more and more deeply, for neither the great nor the little Napoleon brought peace.

## V. The Wider Significance

And there is just one more circumstance which must be considered. I have said—just as every Fascisti leader would say, did say to me—that Fascismo is not only a revolution, but like Communism, like the Russian Revolution, can not be considered as merely of national significance. Bolshevism advanced a deliberate solution for the evils of the world which existed during the war and before it. Bolshevism undertook to replace the democracy of the west, based upon our ideas of capital and property and representative government, by the dictatorship of a class. It was dictatorship, but it was dictatorship which in itself excluded all but one element from power and participation.

Fascismo is something quite different, but it is fundamentally dictatorship. It starts, like Bolshevism, with the assumption that the existing order has broken down. But it escapes those economic heresies which brought ruin to Russia and promptly deprived the Bolshevik experiment of any real appeal abroad. Fascismo recognizes the facts of modern economic life, it recognizes property, it recognizes all classes, it undertakes to elevate no one class, but to combine all. And it has succeeded at all points where Bolshevism has failed. It has brought prosperity, employment, production, activity; it has improved the condition of the worker without injury to the interests of the capitalists.

Nevertheless, it has destroyed a system of government. It has destroyed democracy in our sense. It has abolished parlia-

ment, the press, the right of free speech. It has demanded inexorably complete and cowed submission. It has destroyed the opposition by fire, clubs, and violence. True, the system which it has destroyed had failed to function, had shown paralysis, cowardice, corruption, above all utter incapacity. But here, after all, lies the present challenge of Fascismo to democracy in all other countries in which, broadly speaking, the democratic system exists but either does not work or works badly.

In Britain, Germany, but above all conspicuously in France, the parliamentary system is working badly. It is more and more failing to meet the need of the nation, and progress and reconstruction are being postponed by the sterile quarrels of parties and small men who head small parties. I do not think there has been since the eve of the great revolution such a revelation of utter and complete incapacity in French government as at the present hour.

And for the French evil, for the French condition which is little short of appalling, the Italian solution is an ever-present temptation. Silently but surely, Communism, the secret forces which are inspired by Moscow, are gaining ground in France. The situation becomes daily more intolerable and the hope of orderly solution diminishes. What more likely, in theory, at least, than that some fine morning, with the consent of a weary and oppressed people, who see their country sinking into a hopeless abyss, some group of men, some French Fascismo, should seize the reins of

power from the hands of the incompetent and openly resort to dictatorship to save France from utter ruin and the tragic experience of a brief but terrible Communist supremacy? I do not believe the situation in France is yet at this point.

Still, if parliamentary democracy fails completely in France, if it is thrust aside for a dictatorship, then obviously we shall enter a new and I believe a very stormy period of European history; for the very essence of the Italian solution is nationalism, exalted and even inflamed nationalism. It is force and more force, it is the ruthless pursuit of national aspirations and interests abroad, following the complete unification of the nation at home. And one cannot conceive a Europe in which there is a French and then a German, as well as an Italian Mussolini, without profound anxiety as to the prospects of peace.

America, by contrast with Europe, has, I believe, seen the Italian revolution too completely as a domestic phenomenon. It has rejoiced in the Fascismo success over Communism, in the success in restoring national energy and national efficiency, in the acceptance of the sound principles of economic life, of modern industrial systems. And it has far too little appreciated the fundamental and all-significant challenge which is instinct in the movement, the challenge to representative democracy in other countries, and by the tremendous emphasis which it lays upon nationalism, to the growing need for international understanding and international compromise.

Western Europe has escaped Bolshevism, and that has been a great gain. But Bolshevism is no longer a peril and Fascismo may easily become a danger.

Indeed, in a very real sense, Fascismo is entering upon an international phase, not alone because Mussolini has now to find in foreign fields some opportunities for Italian expansion commensurate with the hopes he has raised in Italy, but also because the method which has succeeded in Italy grows more and more attractive to peoples who suffer from the evils which Fascismo has abolished in Italy and can find no cure in the machinery of the existing democracy.

That is what makes Fascismo at the moment the most interesting and significant circumstance in Europe, a portent the precise meaning of which no one can foresee, but the immense importance of

which becomes daily and hourly more unmistakable. From 1792 to the close of the World War the principle of democracy, despite various halts and temporary reactions, marched solidly and steadily to victory until in the end it brought down all opposition and scattered the last significant thrones in dust. But one cannot fail to perceive that even as its victory became absolute its capacity began to diminish. And Fascismo in its essence is one more, and perhaps the first authentic reaction from nineteenth century democracy, a reaction which does not seek to restore thrones or bring back monarchs, but does return to the classic solution of dictatorship to replace democracy grown incapable of dealing with problems which concern the life and death of nations.

And to-day Fascismo is just as real a threat to representative democracy in the world as was the French Revolution to the dynastic system of the closing quarter of the eighteenth century. And it is becoming daily a more potent and dominating challenge. That is the supreme European fact of the present moment. It has conquered one nation, it looks out from a domestic victory upon a disorganized and shaken Europe. Its denunciation of a free press, of a parliamentary democracy, of all of the common institutions of the west, sounds no stranger, no more heretical to our ears, than did the words of the men of 1792 to the Europe of that day and generation.

Perhaps I should apologize to my readers for having devoted so much time and attention to Fascismo, but my excuse must be that it seems the most significant fact which I have encountered since the close of the war and the fact which, in my judgment, for better or for worse, is going to dominate European history and European affairs for months and perhaps years. Not to understand it, or at least not to appreciate its force, its significance, its enormous vitality, would be, in my judgment, to misunderstand the very basis of present European problems and ignore what may be the most dynamic influence in the immediate future. I cannot believe that Fascismo will succeed eventually, because, as I have said, it does violence to all my American conceptions of liberty and democracy, but that it will go far and exercise a profound influence upon human history, seems to me now inevitable.

# BETTER DAYS FOR WESTERN BANKS

BY CHARLES MOREAU HARGER

**I**F YOU draw a line down the Mississippi River from its source to Arkansas, cut westward, taking in Oklahoma, and continue northward along the Rockies, bending away to include Montana, you will have outlined approximately the territory where for two decades starting a country bank was one of the public's most popular undertakings. On the best corners of the towns, in the best buildings in the villages, about the only attractions of the hamlets, they have become not quite so numerous as "filling stations" but run the drug stores a close race. In the eleven commonwealths of that area, in 1920, were 11,030 of the 30,139 banks and trust companies of the United States, a ratio of a bank to 1,473 of the population; in North Dakota, the ratio was a bank to 720 persons, or 160 families. It was the nation's most "banked" section.

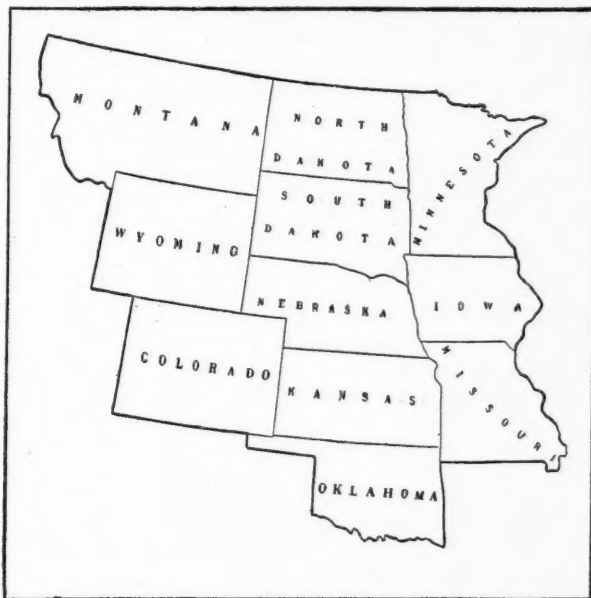
Small capital was required, a minimum of \$10,000 being allowed in most States. Gathering stock subscriptions of \$100 each from merchants, farmers, and professional men, all flattered by the opportunity of being connected with so distinguished a business as banking, was simple. It was even charged that energetic agents for bank fixtures organized institutions in order that they might equip them with elaborate grills, counters, desks, and vaults. Community pride also helped.

Exceedingly pleasant was the going for many years. The entire farm country was steadily progressing; wealth was accumulating. The value of the nation's farms and their equipment increased \$57,485,000,000 from 1900 to 1920. Deposits

grew and expansion of the farm States called for heavy local loans. Country banks kept all available assets at work at high interest rates and paid handsome dividends. Even the most inexperienced bankers—former merchants, professional men, or farmers—carried on, for notes were paid with reasonable promptness and with farm realty increasing in value approximately five dollars an acre a year the security of their customers steadily was strengthened.

## *The Period of Inflation*

Along came the war. Wheat doubled, then tripled in value; corn became a treasure; livestock was a walking mint. Deposits were swollen as the new-found wealth poured into the farmer's account. With them ballooned the loans. The



THE ELEVEN WESTERN STATES WHICH HAVE SUFFERED MOST FROM BANK FAILURES IN THE RECENT PERIOD OF AGRICULTURAL DEPRESSION

producer seeing greater profits bought more land, more livestock, paying extravagant prices for both—and the bank loaned on the inflated value. Farms in Iowa sold for \$600 an acre; previously they had been worth \$200 an acre. Even those bankers who had been through the depression of the '90's forgot that era's lessons and floated with the tide.

In the autumn of 1921 the entire farm country of the interior awoke to the realization that the honeymoon was over. The man who had agreed to pay \$80,000 for a 200-acre farm and had given mortgages for \$60,000, found that the land would sell for only \$40,000—if he could find a buyer. The cattleman who had bought livestock at \$125 a head and had borrowed \$75 of it, discovered that he could not obtain in the market more than \$50 a head. With purebred stock, in which there had been an excessive boom, it was worse. Panic struck the producer. He was swamped with the obligations he had assumed and which by a little earlier action he could have liquidated.

#### *How the Banks Were Caught*

The banks financing the farm country's operations shared in the difficulties attending the readjustment. Part of their boasted deposits went to pay loans; another part was drawn out for current needs. It was not unusual for a bank to lose one-fourth of its deposit account in ninety days. If it possessed abundant capital, had been conservative in making loans and foresighted in laying aside an adequate surplus in quickly negotiable paper, it easily rode the storm. But if, with meager capital, it had loaned to its limit on rural security, efforts to collect the notes gave disappointing results—the borrower had nothing cashable with which to liquidate.

One line of defense was open. The banker could take a bundle of notes, endorse them, and place them with the War Finance Corporation, receiving credit. This was not a panacea but it gained time and saved many a bank from utter collapse. City banks aided their rural customers, rediscounting their paper and making direct bank loans. The Federal Reserve System assisted in similar manner. Agricultural credit corporations in the Northwest went behind the strongest banks of stricken communities and with new capital enabled them to maintain solvency.

#### *The Last Stage—Insolvency*

When all resources were exhausted, if deposits further declined and notes could not be collected, the doors were closed. A bank failure is a serious thing in a rural community. It ties up the credit of business and farm interests and brings losses to stockholders who are often entirely unaware of the straits in which their institution has been placed by its officers. For a time it paralyzes faith in development and leaves a long train of disaster for those unable to withstand financial loss. Hence banking departments were lenient—too lenient, perhaps—and gave every possible opportunity for rehabilitation through added capital or other adjustment.

It has been popular to ascribe the whirlwind of failure to rascality—a feature occasionally manifest when crashes came. But generally there was no intention to defraud. The over-abundant belief in perpetual maintenance of prosperity's level, bad judgment through inexperience in banking, the exuberant optimism with which the whole rural area was imbued, making the banker who did not lend his assistance to the expansive plans on foot decidedly unpopular, all played a part. At first was the taking of chances with a hope that skies would soon clear; then further risks, and finally a sign on the window stating that the bank commissioner or comptroller was in charge.

#### *Fourteen Per Cent. Suspend in Eleven States in Five Years*

It did not all come at once but has dragged along for five years; and, though the crest is past, the end has not completely arrived. In the first four months of 1926, twenty banks were closed in Missouri, a half-dozen in Kansas, and a few in the other States. These latter events have not occurred because of anything that has happened in the past two or three years, but are the fruit of the "frozen loans" carried over from the deflation period and not yet liquidated by the improved condition of agriculture—with local crop failure, steady drain of deposits, or crookedness inside the bank as contributing factors.

Comparisons with the decade previous to 1920 reveal what has been the effect of the change in rural conditions. From 1910 to 1920, in this territory, 116 banks failed—



one here and there where bad management prevailed—and many were reopened when their tangled affairs had been adjusted. This is the story of failures during the next five years; 1921, 142; 1922, 176; 1923, 179; 1924, 708; 1925, 269; a total of 1,474. This was 59 per cent. of the 2,486 bank failures for the entire United States for that half-decade. By States the record reads: Minnesota 140, Iowa 153, Missouri 96, Oklahoma 160, Colorado 45, Wyoming 53, Montana 173, North Dakota 273, South Dakota 194, Nebraska 102, Kansas 85.

As these official figures were for fiscal years ending June 30, some addition must be made for suspensions occurring in all these States since that date of last year, bringing the grand total to more than 1,500—making no allowance for occasional instances where reopening has been possible. This indicates a serious financial wreckage—but it must be remembered that in the same States more than 9,000 banks did not fail, so conducting their affairs as to maintain complete solvency.

#### *Guaranty of Deposits*

State banking departments have sought to minimize failures by stricter examination, limitation of the number of banks to the needs of the communities, and higher qualification for organization. Beginning sixteen years ago, legislation added another feature which, while not claiming to eliminate bank suspension, did propose to insure depositors from loss and so establish a standard of permanence in financial affairs. This was the guaranty of deposits, for State banks, based on the theory of creating a fund through assessments on a large group of institutions to pay in full losses incurred by those suffering embarrassment, thus increasing public confidence, preventing "runs," and bringing to the bank money hoarded in crocks and bureau drawers. Perhaps, too, among its advocates was a belief that such procedure would give to guaranteed State banks a prestige over the national institutions. The burden of contribution to the fund, it was argued, would be negligible and be more than offset by the added patronage attracted.

The idea was not new. A century ago New York banks tried a "safety fund," but when failures became numerous the fund was exhausted and the system was abandoned. Mr. Bryan is credited with being the leading proponent of the attractive

theory, and he had much to do with writing the first guaranty law, that of Oklahoma, in 1907. He declared it would solve forever the problem of banking safety. In the post-war period seven other States followed the Oklahoma precedent. Few banks failed, their losses were promptly liquidated, depositors were happy, and the bankers hailed the system as a correction for all banking ills.

Two methods were followed. In one, as was used in Kansas, the banks voluntarily became members of the group that authorized assessment on their resources to meet the losses of failed institutions within the fund list. In Kansas about 700 of the 1,000 State banks became members. By the other plan, as in Nebraska, Oklahoma, the Dakotas, and Texas, membership was compulsory and every State bank was subject to the assessments to guarantee losses. In some, as in Kansas, which required \$1,000,000, a fixed sum was set as the minimum for the guaranty fund; in others assessments were ordered to meet needs, regardless of the burden on the solvent banks.

#### *A Scheme that Failed to Meet the Test*

The test of the guaranty came with deflation. Oklahoma had 70 failures from 1920 to 1923; over \$10,000,000 in claims were pending. The legislature repealed the law, leaving the claims unpaid, and the first State to adopt the plan was the first to abandon it.

South Dakota, which suffered severely both in bank suspensions and in a costly effort to establish a State land loan system involving millions in losses, repealed its guaranty law last year, subject to a referendum by the voters next November. The unmet losses are estimated at \$15,000,000, but will depend on what can be recouped from assets of failed institutions.

North Dakota is in somewhat similar condition, with about \$4,000,000 in claims to be adjusted. One house of its legislature voted to repeal the statute, but the bill failed in the other house and the law yet stands.

Kansas had in April, 1926, 630 banks left in its guaranty list. Claims amounted to \$6,750,000 drawing 6 per cent. interest. Assets, including \$978,000 in bonds deposited by the banks as an evidence of good faith, were \$2,250,000, leaving a deficit of \$4,500,000. The Supreme Court then

held that the banks might withdraw from the fund by forfeiting their bonds, averaging about \$1,600 each, and escape responsibility for the deficit in the fund. Whether they will withdraw or await repeal of the law, when they may retain their bonds, remains to be seen—but the guaranty system is in effect defunct.

Nebraska, with practically unlimited assessments, claims it can pay its deficit of about \$3,000,000 in two years. Although a dozen commonwealths in the post-war period seriously considered adopting a bank guaranty system, only three outside the Middle West group actually entered upon the plan. Texas, in the far Southwest, has a compulsory system, allowing banks either to enter the guaranty list or insure deposits in a surety company. Because of its large area and the moderate number of failures it has met its losses. Washington extended it to the Pacific coast, but some 115 bank failures, with one of large volume of losses, wiped out the fund and since 1921 it has been a dead letter. Mississippi carried it into the Old South. Here the deficit has reached a figure which will require five years of assessments to meet the unpaid claims, according to recent estimates.

That the guaranty law leads to undue risks and encourages untrained additions to an already over-banked situation is held by bankers generally. Kansas, for instance, has 300 more banks than needed, according to Governor Paulen. Larger capital and fewer banks are the factors most essential to the solidity of financial institutions.

#### *Marked Improvement in Farm Production and Returns*

Despite the scattered failures of recent months, the West's financial situation is vastly improved. The farm production of 1924 was first to the rescue. It did not liquidate all debts; but it did relieve the banks of the wheat belt particularly, and gave opportunity for extension of credit with less strain on the most rural banks. The next year was not a miracle season, but it was marked by higher prices for products and deposits as a whole expanded. Loans were kept within closest possible limits and every banker watched his business with a keen scrutiny, having learned to say "No" when his judgment advised declination of accommodation to customers.

The corn country was slowest to recover. Iowa, with its long period of agricultural

prosperity, was yet carrying heavy debts from the land and livestock extravagance of the war days. Its corn could not be marketed at a profit, and its banks were unable to extend the credit needed to turn corn into beef and pork. Hence we have heard much of the corn-belt troubles because its chief product cannot be rushed from field to elevator, as is wheat, but requires months of preparation before it can be sold advantageously in the form of fat livestock. Somewhat the same condition affects Missouri. The banks of these States had made extensive realty loans, and no such resilience was possible as in a wheat section with its quick accretion of credit following a harvest.

The weak institutions have largely been weeded out of the interior's banking industry. A few more failures probably will follow, but mostly they will be the smaller concerns whose communities have not made vigorous strides toward renewed prosperity. The village bank is suffering from motoritis. The farmer in his automobile whirls by to transact business with the large bank in the county seat or other population center. Hence, a stronger first line of defense gradually is being established in rural banking. If legislatures, as now seems probable, strengthen the situation by requiring adequate capital, the system will be more firmly established.

Thereby will be eliminated much of the rivalry for business, leading to offering higher interest rates for long time deposits than sound banking warrants, bidding extravagantly for public funds, and similar efforts to secure income for expenses and dividends. Financial authorities ascribe as the underlying cause of a considerable part of the sad experience of the past half-decade these unbusinesslike methods. Desire for profits led to chance-taking that in the end proved disastrous.

The improved condition of the producing country has served to liquidate much of the paper carried over from five years ago; some notes have been charged off the books; gradually the financial structure of the rural communities is being brought back to normal. Every banker is determined to restrain his customers from hazardous borrowing and, taught by experience, to pursue a course of strict conservatism.

With this basis, banking interests of the rural States are entering on a new and sounder financial era.

# LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

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## The British Strike and Its Results

THE ten-day's general strike in Great Britain, which came to an end on May 12 with the signing of an armistice between the Government and the General Committee of the Trades Union Congress, precipitated a crisis, the results of which must, in the nature of the case, be far-reaching. In the *New York Times* for May 16, Mr. Philip W. Wilson, a former member of the British Parliament, outlines some of these consequences. In the first place, the coal industry of Great Britain, which is second only to agriculture, is to be completely reorganized. The principles to be applied in this reorganization are summarized by Mr. Wilson under three heads:

- (1) Big business instead of small business;
- (2) Labor-saving instead of lower wages;
- (3) Capital and labor coöperating for a high output instead of capital and labor competing in a hard bargain.

By the terms of the armistice, the subsidy and the wages dependent upon it, will continue to be paid for a brief period, and in the meantime the report of the Royal Commission will be put into effect. The miners must then be ready to accept a "revision," that is, a reduction of wages at the hands of the National Wages Board.

The reorganization of the mines which is demanded by the report of the Royal Commission involves the displacement of the labor of 250,000 men. These men must go into other industries or be taken care of in some other way. It is estimated that a population of 1,000,000 will thus cease to depend for a living on coal-mining. There will be a saving of labor through the closing of mines which have ceased to be profitable, through the amalgamation of contiguous mines which may be worked as a single unit, and through the adoption of mechanical devices for cutting the coal and moving it.

The weak mine owner, fighting for a bare existence, will be eliminated. One of the leading capitalists in the industry, Sir Alfred Mond, proposes that coal for export be mined near the seaboard. Vast electric power stations are being established close to the pit heads. This will centralize and cheapen the use of coal for industry, lighting, and the home. The mines will continue to be worked by private enterprise, but the state is purchasing all the coal in the ground so far as it is known to be marketable, and is appropriating in advance all coal which may hereafter be discovered. In the future, all leases to work the coal will be granted by the state or transferred to the state. All royalties on coal extracted will be paid to the state.

As to the immediate results of the general strike, which so disrupted Britain's traditional calm, Mr. Wilson says:

After so grave a social hurricane, there is manifest still a disturbance of industry, especially in the mines, and the difficult problem of reinstating strikers has to be faced. But such an aftermath was inevitable.

The armistice is a triumph of common sense over extreme opinion on both sides. It is the defeat of near-communism, on the one hand, represented by "Emperor"—that is, A. J.—Cook, the Secretary of the Miners, and on the other hand, of the Fascist spirit impersonated by Winston Churchill. Cook, when refusing all compromise, was thrown over by the Trades Union Congress. Churchill, when insistent on spectacular methods, was in effect thrown over by the majority of the Cabinet. And a settlement—honorable, if of necessity provisional—was thus reached. The miners are still unreconciled, but for Britain as a whole there has dawned a new day.

While the general strike leaves the King on his throne, while it fails to supplant Parliament either by a Dictator or a Soviet—bogies which the extremists raised—and while the British Constitution has thus withstood the severest shock in its history, there has been none the less a revolution during the past fortnight, a profound revolution; it is a revolution of ideas.

## Leadership in a Modern World

**H**ISTORY always has been written around the lives of individuals. Caesar, Napoleon, Gladstone, Lincoln — if one studies the lives of such men he learns the contemporary history of nations. Not statesmen only, but inventors, teachers, railroad builders, business giants: the story of the man is a story of his time.

No type of book is more popular, no class of periodical is more successful, no newspaper is more lucrative, than the one which tells of the careers of modern leaders in one field or another. More Americans could name Theodore Roosevelt's children than could state the approximate length of the Panama Canal. More people saw Woodrow Wilson in one month, at times, than ever saw Princeton College in all its one hundred and sixty years.

Even in current affairs the average citizen is better informed about Mussolini than about Italy's vital problems that called him to leadership, better informed about Al Smith than about the reorganization of State government. The domestic affairs of a "movie" star of the third magnitude are of more common knowledge than are the principles of motion-picture projection.

All of which is by way of apology for drawing attention here in these pages to a number of persons who within recent weeks have stood out from among their fellow men by reason of achievement or the

hand of fate. These paragraphs, however, will ignore the claims of Mussolini, Briand, Baldwin, and Coolidge, seeking rather to tell of others not quite so well known.

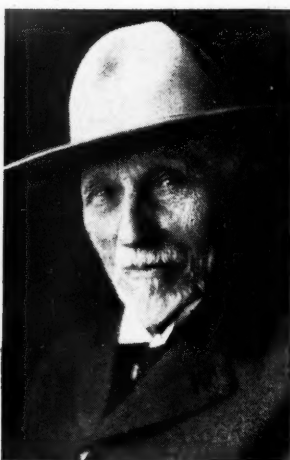
### Recognizing "Distinguished Service"

Our selection is aided, as it happens, by a jury or two, or committee, made up of competent judges. This year's Roosevelt Medals for Distinguished Service were awarded last month to Admiral William S. Sims, retired, for promotion of the national defense; to former Senator Albert J. Beveridge, biographer of John Marshall, for an eminent contribution to literature; to Daniel Carter Beard, National Commissioner of the Boy Scouts, for the leadership and the development of American character. We append here extracts from the citations which accompanied the awards:

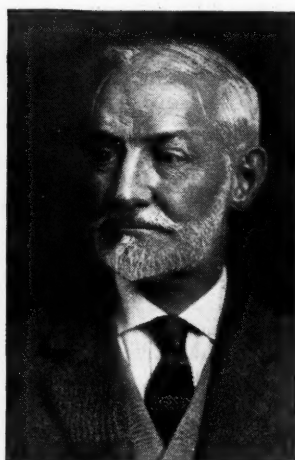
William Snowden Sims, rear-admiral, U.S.N., retired, has labored for thirty years, in time of peace as well as in war, to make the American navy adequate for its responsibility as the nation's first instrument of defense. As naval aide in Paris during the period preceding the Spanish war, his fearless criticisms of American naval marksmanship stimulated a restudy of methods, and impelled Theodore Roosevelt when he became President completely to revolutionize the training in marksmanship. The record of Admiral Sims in war is as striking as it is in preparation for war. Throughout America's participation in the conflict with Germany, Admiral Sims commanded the U. S. naval operations in European waters. His services at



● Bachrach  
Albert J. Beveridge



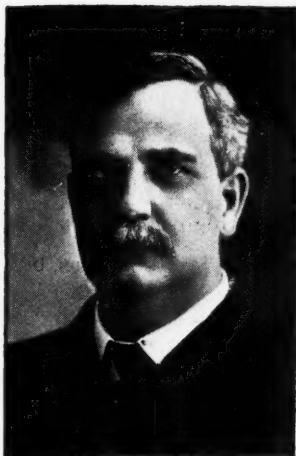
● Underwood  
Daniel Carter Beard



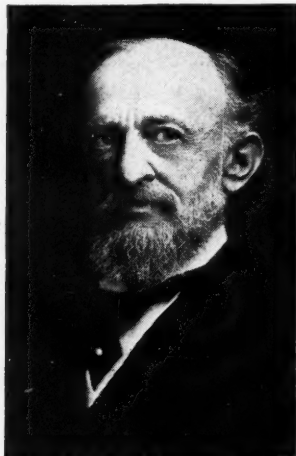
Admiral William S. Sims

AWARDED ROOSEVELT MEDALS FOR DISTINGUISHED SERVICE





Benjamin B. Odell

© Harris & Ewing  
Oscar S. Straus© Pacin  
Alton B. Parker

## THREE PUBLIC MEN OF NEW YORK WHO DIED LAST MONTH

that time extended beyond his immediate responsibility as commander of the American fleet.

Albert J. Beveridge won instant acclaim when in 1918, after many years of distinguished service in the United States Senate, he published his monumental life of John Marshall, chief justice of the United States. This work, in four volumes, for the first time revealed fully the stalwart, vigorous and brilliant personality of the great jurist and the extraordinary service which, by his clear vision, his strong national sentiments, his courage and his determination, he rendered the nation by bringing power to the Supreme Court and thereby authority to the Constitution. "Mr. Beveridge is peculiarly fitted to write the biography of the great nationalist Chief Justice," wrote Colonel Roosevelt in 1918. "He has himself played a distinguished part in our political life, and during his brilliant service of twelve years in the United States Senate, he championed with fidelity all the honorable causes for which Marshall and his fellow Federalists stood."

Daniel Carter Beard is the National Scout Commissioner of the Boy Scouts of America, and has been called "the oldest and best scout of them all, who has taught the boys of the United States more about the outdoors than any other man who ever lived." Few men now living are so well-known to boys the country over as Mr. Beard, and none is so widely and deeply beloved as he. Dan Beard has stimulated their love of outdoors and guided them among the mysteries of the natural world. But his highest service lies in the inspiration which he has given to millions of American boys to emulate the virtues of those pioneers who created, established and extended the American nation.

## The Year's Pulitzer Prizes

The will of Joseph Pulitzer, founder of the *New York World*, established a number of annual prizes in journalism and letters. For 1925 the trustees and advisory board have selected Sinclair Lewis' "Arrowsmith" as the American novel which best represents

wholesome atmosphere and high standards; Channing's "History of the United States" and Harvey Cushing's "Life of Sir William Osler" as the most meritorious books in their respective fields; the late Amy Lowell's "What O'Clock" as the best volume of verse, and "Craig's Wife," by George Kelly, as the prize play.

Edward M. Kingsbury, long of the *Sun* and now of the *New York Times*, was declared to have written the best editorial; D. R. Fitzpatrick, of the *St. Louis Post Dispatch*, received the award for the best cartoon, and William B. Miller, of the *Louisville Courier-Journal* for reporting.

Traveling scholarships to the most deserving graduates of schools of journalism and to music and art students were also awarded.

These Pulitzer Prizes and Roosevelt medals come to men and women still in the prime of life and at the height of their careers—except in the case of Amy Lowell, who died recently.

## Some Who Drop the Mantle of Leadership

It is more frequently the case that the full measure of public acclaim is accorded only when the careers of recognized leaders come to an end. Thus the obituary columns of the daily press are often thrilling chapters in the never-ending story of individual achievement. Oscar Straus, who died on May 3, was brought to the United States as an immigrant boy, the son of an

itinerant peddler; yet he served in high public office under six Presidents. Alton B. Parker was a country boy in obscure surrounding; yet he was designated for the highest honor within the gift of his fellow citizens. Joseph Pennell sold coal to Philadelphians in his youth, but studied art at night and won world fame as an illustrator. The list might well be extended.

Oscar Straus, as the youngest of three brothers, was graduated from Columbia University in 1871 and practiced law in New York. In 1887 he was appointed Minister to Turkey, and he served in that office, in various emergencies, under Cleveland, Harrison, McKinley and Taft. He was Secretary of Commerce and Labor under Roosevelt, and was a member of the Hague Tribunal by appointment of Roosevelt, Taft and Wilson. He died last month at the age of seventy-five. "Not in a thousand years," declares the Boston *Transcript*, "are better men or finer citizens brought into the world than he was." In his entire career, in the opinion of the Philadelphia *Public Ledger*, he illustrated the best theories of American citizenship and religious toleration. The New York *Times* asserts that "it is hard to say whether Oscar Straus will be more mourned and longer remembered for his public services than for his unusual private virtues and personal qualities."

Alton Brooks Parker was born at Cortland, N. Y., in 1852, studied law at Albany, and became a member of the Supreme

Court of his State when only thirty-four years of age. Meanwhile he has attended political conventions, and had managed David B. Hill's successful campaign for the Governorship. In 1891, a Republican year, Mr. Parker was elected Chief Justice of the State Court of Appeals, from which office the Democrats in 1904 called him as national standard-bearer against Theodore Roosevelt. Looking backward to that campaign, the *Transcript* asserts that "he proved disappointing as a candidate," his speeches and public appearances having "none of the magnetic quality of those of his adversary." The *Times* declares that his "national fame rose and fell in a single year." All commentators agree, however, that Judge Parker was one of the country's ablest lawyers. Two years after his defeat for the presidency he was elected head of the American Bar Association.

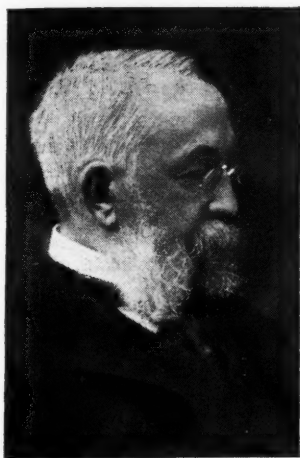
A third distinguished leader in New York public affairs to pass away within the early part of May was Benjamin B. Odell, Republican, Governor from 1901 to 1905 and previously a Representative in Congress. The New York *World*, though of different political faith, calls Mr. Odell "one of New York's strongest Governors" whose name should long be remembered for what he did in practical measures of lasting importance to the people of the State. Likewise the *Times* asserts that he "brought to the office of Governor an unusual combination of qualities," displaying "an uncommon power of vigorous administration."

## Achievement at Johns Hopkins University

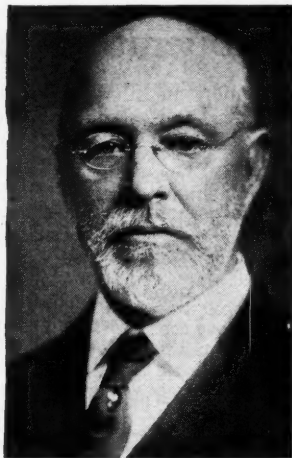
IN THE coming autumn Johns Hopkins University will celebrate its fiftieth anniversary. A brief summary of the accomplishments of the university, which introduced a new ideal into American education which has led to remarkable advance in many fields during its comparatively short existence is given by Mr. French Strother in *World's Work* (New York) for June. Johns Hopkins was founded by a shrewd old Quaker merchant and banker of that name. He had very little idea of what the university should be like, Mr. Strother tells us, but he did have an extraordinarily original and precise idea of what the hospital should be. He conceived a plan that has largely altered the character

of medical education throughout America. For, although the university and the hospital were separately endowed and had each a separate board of trustees, the hospital was to be a part of the medical school of the university; the head of the medical school was to be the chief physician at the hospital; the professors were to be visiting physicians, and the hospital itself was to serve as a clinical laboratory of the medical school.

Further than this, it has worked out in practice, says Mr. Strother, that the chemical and physical laboratories of the university have been placed at the service of the hospital, and several important discoveries have been made through the



Daniel C. Gilman, 1876-1900



Ira Remsen, 1901-12



Frank J. Goodnow, 1914—

## THE THREE PRESIDENTS OF JOHNS HOPKINS

coöperative research made possible by the arrangement.

The man who did most besides Johns Hopkins himself to determine the character of the university was its first president, the late Daniel Coit Gilman, whose conception of a university organized "not so much for the purpose of passing on the rich heritage of past knowledge as to discover new truths and thereby extend the frontiers of the human mind," has resulted in the first American university to work on the theory that students are best taught in an atmosphere of reasearch.

The first teachers, only six in number, were chosen less for their reputation as teachers than for their promise as scientific investigators. The success of the scheme has been clearly demonstrated by the long list of distinguished men who have received their training here, and by the as long list of achievements by workers at the university in the fields of science, medicine, history, government, educational method.

Of one thousand men starred as being of especial distinction in the compilation of the histories of "American Men of Science," edited by Dr. J. McKeen Cattell, 243 received their training at Johns Hopkins, 190 at Harvard, 113 at Chicago, 100 at Columbia, 79 at Cornell, 75 at Yale, with the remaining 200 scattered. A few of the contributions to science made by professors and students at the university are named by Mr. Strother. For example, Dr. Ira Remsen, first professor of chemistry there, among other things discovered saccharine.

Other discoveries, in chemistry, physics, biology, zoölogy, and the like are too numerous to mention, while the advances made in medical and surgical knowledge are of inestimable importance.

The contributions in the fields of letters and statesmanship are equally striking. Richard T. Ely, dean of American economists, and Woodrow Wilson his pupil are among the especially worthy of mention.

The influence of Johns Hopkins has been out of all proportion to its age or its wealth, [writes Mr. Strother.] It has stimulated the intellectual life of the whole country, while adding solid accomplishment of enduring value to science and practical industry.

It is the plan of the present president, Frank J. Goodnow, gradually to eliminate the first two years of undergraduate instruction, so that even more energy may be spent in the fields of research. The move, when accomplished, will make Johns Hopkins unique among American universities, and should lead to scientific and scholarly achievements surpassing even the brilliant records of the past.

Of first importance among the new developments at Johns Hopkins, is the Page School of International Relations. Mr. Owen D. Young, who is keenly interested in this enterprise, says that by utilizing the facilities already existing at the university, this new school will be able, with a special endowment of \$1,000,000, to proceed with its work. The purpose of the school is to "apply the tried and tested methods of research to world problems."

## Community Coöperation for the Farmer

THE prospect of 7,500,000 farmers in this country organized to hold up the other two-thirds of the population has but little appeal to Don C. Seitz in his recent article in the *Outlook*. Instead of farmers coöperating to hold up the community, Mr. Seitz would like to see the community coöperating to uphold the farmer.

The big thing [he says] for community coöperation lies in handling the food supply. Not long ago I was shocked at the poor showing made in wealth-growing by my old town in Maine. The local bank cashier said that there was nothing strange about it. "I sent away from this town last year," he said, "\$189,000 for stuff that could have been raised here."

He meant by this, money expended for grain, fruit, vegetables, meat, milk, and poultry products; or, briefly, the things required for daily food.

All the coöperation in the world would have done the farmers of the town no good. It would probably have made their plight worse, and certainly have added immeasurably to their unpopularity. There are just about 189 farmers in the town. Supposing the community had coöperated and by a decent merchandizing system distributed the \$189,000 among the farmers of the town. . . . One thousand dollars per year per farmer, plus the living provided by the farm, would make him the most prosperous and contented of men.

Mr. Seitz does not urge community coöperation through such street markets as

have been arranged in Berks, York, and Lancaster Counties, Pennsylvania, but rather through the merchants, coöperating to give the farmer real money instead of "store credit" for his products. This is what he means:

How easy it would be for such coöperators to get together and check up their requirements—how many pounds of meat; how much milk, butter, and cheese; how many bushels of wheat, corn, oats, potatoes, beans, peas, pears, peaches; how many dozen eggs; how much poultry, the town requires, and apportion this by requisition among the adjacent farms, each according to its capacity! How joyously the farmers would come to welcome a regular market and cash pay, as against a measly credit, too often taken up in inferior goods at outrageous prices! How the community would rejoice at fresh food "right off the farm!" . . .

What greater guerdon of prosperity could be given than such a process of coöperation? What finer form of civilized life is there than prosperous towns centered amid prosperous farms, linked up by good roads and motor transport?

Mr. Seitz believes that the passing of social isolation for the farmer will be followed by closer economic contacts, and he seems to have little sympathy for "quack remedies of tariffs, legislation, farm banks, and other forms of so-called aid that only perpetuate peonage."

## Sweden's Handling of the Liquor Problem

IN CONNECTION with the agitation for amendment of the Volstead Act in this country, there is a growing interest in the experience of other nations in dealing with the liquor traffic. Attention has been drawn to Sweden, which has a distinctive system of sales restriction. Under this system, it is claimed that arrests for drunkenness have decreased about 50 per cent. since 1913, while 37 per cent. less liquor is consumed. Cases of acute alcoholism in the Stockholm hospitals have decreased 78 per cent.

Mr. Gustaf Weidel, Commercial Attaché of the Swedish Legation at Washington, describes the working of the system in the *Independent* (Boston) for April 10. According to this writer, the characteristic feature of the Swedish system is that it does not prohibit the selling of liquor. It attempts instead to limit the consumption of liquor

by centralizing sales and making the purchase of wine and spirits subject to a special license. Restriction, not prohibition, is the key to the system. The entire liquor trade in Sweden is vested in a private company which has received the exclusive right from the government to deal in intoxicating drinks. The profits of the shareholders of this company are strictly limited, all surplus earnings go to the government.

Every customer of the company receives a pass book (*Motbok*), entitling one to purchase a limited quantity of spirits each week or month. At present the lawful maximum is fixed at four bottles per month, but this may be supplemented by French champagne, English port, German Rhine wine, or Italian Chianti, in unlimited quantities. The company catalogues 862 varieties of wine and 263 of spirits. In order to obtain a copy of the *Motbok*, the



citizen must make an application to the company stating his name, residence, occupation, just as he does when asking for a passport. The company verifies these statements and if the applicant is found to be a citizen in good standing he receives a copy of the treasured book. He is then entitled to buy his wine and spirits at the branch office nearest to his residence or place of business. If the company finds that the applicant is not of age, or has been guilty of drunkenness, or of certain crimes or misdemeanors during the past few years, his application will be refused. It is stated that of all male citizens over twenty-five of age, 64 per cent. are now allowed to buy liquor in Sweden.

As a rule, only one member of a household receives

a *Motbok*, and men between twenty-one and twenty-five years of age are only allowed to buy liquor on a very limited scale. The book, once received, is its owner's property for life and perpetually powerful—provided the owner does not overdo the use of alcohol and thus abuse his privilege. When he does that he forfeits the *Motbok*.

The best brands of liquor are made available to the licensed purchaser at moderate prices. The company, as sole importer of liquor for Sweden, is able to get favorable prices when it places large orders on the market. There is no attempt to increase the selling price of liquor unreasonably, since the shareholders can get only a fixed dividend, the surplus going to the government. The revenue to the national government in 1922 was more than four millions of dollars.

## The Crown Prince of Sweden Visits America

AS a result of the growing American influence on Swedish life to-day, it is but natural that the Crown Prince of Sweden, Gustavus Adolphus, and the future Queen, Crown Princess Louise, should visit America as their ancestors visited the older center of interest and influence, Paris.

So says Mr. Börje H. Brilioth, writing in the *Forum* (New York) for June. The visit of the Crown Prince and his wife has as its occasion the unveiling in Washington of the new monument to John Ericsson the Swedish-born inventor of the *Monitor*, which determined naval supremacy in the Civil War. Following the ceremony on May 29, however, the royal pair will make a two-months' tour of the country.

Prince Gustavus Adolphus has so far spent virtually every moment of his forty-four years in preparing himself for the task of wearing the crown, Mr. Brilioth tells us. His intellectual pursuits have been many and creditable. He has taken an active interest in science, has done research work in archæology, excavating and writing treatises on his chosen subjects. His intellectual background is unusually brilliant. His great-great grandfather was Napoleon's famous general, Bernadotte, a Marshal of France and Prince of Ponto Corvo, who was chosen by the Swedish Riksdag in 1810 as the heir to the Swedish throne.

Elected for a military prowess which could protect the country against the men-

ace of Russia, King Carl Johan, as he was thenceforth known, initiated a peace of over a century. He was a patron of arts and science, builder of schools, railroads, canals, and promoter of foreign trade. His descendants have inherited his intellectual magnitude. Oscar I, great-grandfather of Prince Gustavus Adolphus, was said to be able to fill the place of the head of any of the government departments at a moment's notice, and his gigantic work on "Crime and Penal Institutions" attracted international attention. His son, Oscar II, was known by his contemporaries as the most learned monarch of Europe. His brother and successor, Charles XV, was a talented painter, and another brother a composer of music still popular. This strain is by no means run out in the present ruler and his brothers. King Gustavus V has advanced education, developed art, athletics, scientific research, and exploration.

Prince Gustavus Adolphus has undergone a strenuous and varied education, democratic in all its aspects. He is a keen athlete and has done much to develop general national participation in sport. He is a graduate of the University of Upsala, and he has received military training from the ranks up. "In no respect," says Mr. Brilioth, "has he shirked the disagreeable parts of his training, or slid along fictitious royal road to learning."

He is well-known for his archæological discoveries in Sweden, and his organization

of Swedish parties to the Classic lands, which have made particularly important and rich finds. Recently he has become interested in the formation of the Swedish Oriental Society and in the activities of the Swedish Archæological Society (also of his forming) in the Near East.

Aside from these interests, the Prince's major activity has been to become thoroughly familiar with all governmental procedure and activities. His first wife, the beloved Crown Princess Margaret, died in 1920, leaving five children, the eldest of whom, Princess Ingrid, is now fifteen years old. Unlike other royal children they have

not been educated by private tutors, but attend the regular schools. In 1923, the Crown Prince married the Lady Louise Mountbatten, a great granddaughter of Queen Victoria.

Personally the Prince is charming. He has the art, says Mr. Brilioth, of making every one feel at ease in his presence. He is courteous, modest, and simple in manner. In this the Princess Louise is his equal, having that particularly delightful English easy-going temperament, cheerful and frank, which immediately removes all feeling of awe or self-consciousness from those about her.

## The Disappearing Irish

FOR many years those who have been closely associated with the Irish in the United States have been conscious of the fact that the descendants of those who might be called the successful Irish immigrants to this country two generations ago, are in the process of disappearing. In *America* (New York), the Catholic weekly, Dr. James J. Walsh presents statistics gathered here and in Ireland which lead to the interesting conclusion that the Irish as a race tend to late marriages and a much higher rate of celibacy than other races.

Fifty families of immigrants who had become well-to-do American citizens had 250 children grow to adult years. The third generation of that group, which should have contained 1000 children, at the same average rate of five children to a family, has now less than 200. A number are unmarried, some are childless in marriage, and only a very few have families of four or more. These statistics, collected by Dr. Walsh from Pennsylvania, New York, New England and Canada, led him to investigate the situation in Ireland. He found that in Ireland, as among the descendants of the Irish in America, there is a much higher percentage of celibacy than among other nationalities. Prof. C. H. Oldham, writing on the "Coming Irish Census" of 1926 in a recent issue of *Studies* called attention to a number of striking peculiarities about the Irish population which the new census would in all probability bring to light. He said:

The proportion of the sexes is amazingly different (in Ireland) from that of all old European populations; the celibacy of our people, the lateness of the

few marriages that do take place are without parallel anywhere; the extraordinary masculinity in our birthrate is a peculiar conundrum. In all these respects and in a hundred others, Irish statistics reveal that Ireland is amazingly unlike any other country.

From the figures of the 1911 census, the latest ones available, Dr. Walsh points out the truth of the above statement. First is the preponderance of males in the birth-rate. While in most countries, the number of females born alive far exceeds the number of males, in Ireland there is an average of 6 per cent. more male infants born alive than female infants.

Early marriages, in Ireland, are extremely rare. Less than one-tenth of 1 per cent. of the young men marry before twenty and one-half of 1 per cent. of women. Up to the age of thirty-five, less than 30 per cent. of the men are married, and less than 50 per cent. of the women. By the time they have reached fifty-five, 67 per cent. of the men and 60 per cent. of the women have married. A comparison with Scotland and England, the two countries most parallel in climatic and economic conditions, shows much higher percentages for a given age, and many more marriages in all.

In 1870 in Ireland there were 5.3 marriages per 1000 of the population, while in England and Wales there were 8.2 and in Scotland 7 per 1000. With various fluctuations through the years, practically the same ratio is preserved. In 1920, after almost fifty years of lower rates, the Irish record was 5.4. England and Wales, however, had a marriage rate of 8.4 at this time, and Scotland of 7.8 per thousand.

The peculiarities represented by these figures have undoubtedly largely an economic cause, but it has affected the race so deeply that its results are being felt also in

the United States where the economic factors are different, with the resultant serious diminution of the Irish as a racial factor in American life.



Miss Margaret Bondfield  
of England



Comrade Clara Zetkin  
of Germany



Miss Alice Masaryk  
of Czechoslovakia



Miss Agda Ostlund  
of Sweden

FOUR WOMEN WHO ARE LEADERS IN PARLIAMENTARY POLITICS

## Women Members in European Parliaments

**W**OMEN are always news, Miss Alzada Comstock, a contributor to the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* and recent winner of a Guggenheim scholarship, reminds us in an article about foreign women politicians in the *American Political Science Review* for May. If interest in the subject of women were not eternal, says Miss Comstock, this article would no longer find readers, for in the last few years there have been at least a hundred women sitting in the various parliaments of Europe,—as regular members and not mere curiosities.

An interesting geographical consideration is pointed out by Miss Comstock. The countries from which these women members, senators and deputies come lie in a fringe around the north and east of Europe. France, Italy and Spain are out of it entirely. The Scandinavian countries, and that farthest north of all civilized nations, Finland have had the greatest number of women legislators, and one Finnish member has served her fifth three-year term. Approximately the same ratio between the north and south holds in the arts and professions as well.

In Germany, where the Kaiser's three K's, *Kinder, Küche, und Kirche* have so long been the rule, there have been thirty or forty members of the Reichstag since the war. Probably the most influential and picturesque is the Baroness von Oheimb, long a social and political power in the nation. The Democratic member, Dr. Elsie Lüders, is a practical and forceful personality. Another famous German woman is the Socialist member, "Comrade" Clara Zetkin.

The situation in England is perhaps the best known, and none the less interesting. Lady Astor, firebrand member since 1920, was Nancy Langhorne of Virginia, and the first woman to be elected to the House of Commons. In 1924 there were eight women members, two Liberal, three Conservatives, and three Labor, under the Labor government.

When there were only three women in the House, Lady Astor, Mrs. Wintringham, and Mrs. Clara Phillipson, they were known as "Society, Sobriety and Variety." Lady Astor was obviously "Society," Mrs. Phillipson, who had been on the stage before her marriage, was "Variety." And Mrs. Wintringham, whose manner Lady Astor accurately described in the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* for January, 1924, as

the woman who just smiles and smiles, and skins them alive—but they don't know it—was quite as appropriately "Sobriety."

Margaret Bondfield was easily the outstanding woman member of the House under the Labor government, and is one of Labor's most effective speakers.

In Czechoslovakia, a unique incident was the election of Alice Masaryk unanimously by all parties, as a kind of tribute from the nation. The Czechoslovak lower house has members of another tradition as well, for here Slovak women with shawls over their heads clump heavily down the aisles.

The Finnish woman legislator, Miss Annie Furuhjelm, who has served fifteen years, is a newspaper editor and strong internationalist. The Swedish members have been of all types, largely professional women or social workers. Except in Finland, where women have long seen valuable service, their activities have been modest. At no time and in no country have they acted as *women* together, and it is the last thing which should be urged.

Miss Comstock closes her article with a statement of the question which Americans must contemplate:

It is this: should the class of women eligible for American political life be limited to widows? The Europeans, that is, the Continentals, seem to have an odd idea: that women's qualifications to act as representatives of voters are much like men's; that an eminent teacher, doctor, lawyer, or writer has demonstrated some sort of ability which might serve the country well if it were turned in the direction of politics. Out of Holland's seven women there were three lawyers and one physician. Norway's two members were an architect and the head of a large girls' school. Sweden's senator was chief women's factory inspector. And so the roll proceeds, with almost no exception, save in England.

But the United States, in a strange and sentimental nepotism, prefers widows.

Whether they are chosen because they are expected to carry on the policies of the unfortunately deceased, or whether, Miss Comstock further ironically suggests, it is done by way of sentimental tribute, the American public is asked to consider the eligibility of other women citizens for political posts.

## Testing Taxicab Drivers

COMFORTING news for the readers who rides in taxicabs is related in the June *Forum* (New York). The Yellow Cab Company of Chicago, with the aid of Prof. A. J. Snow of Northwestern University, is administering a set of psychological tests to its taxi-drivers, in an effort to weed out drivers who are potentially dangerous, without waiting for a succession of accidents to make their unfitness obvious.

This is one of the many new ways in which practical psychology is being applied to business, and the results, of course, are by no means sure. One of the tests is for emotional stability: The candidate is required to operate a somewhat complicated series of switches and foot-pedals according to carefully given directions, and while he is doing it, he is given unexpectedly a mild electric shock. The examiner observes to what extent the surprise upsets the equanimity and competence of the driver. There is also a test for carelessness, and a third for space perception. With small-model vehicles, the candidate is required to estimate speeds and meeting places. He must do this both accurately and quickly in order to convince the examiner that he

could make similar judgments safely while piloting a car on the streets.

The objections to these tests are of course, many. But, says the *Forum*, "If a thousand taxicab drivers who passed Dr. Snow's set of tests are compared with a thousand who did not pass, there will be little question, we imagine, which set of drivers one would prefer to ride behind."

Although much remains to be done to make psychological determinations essential in vocational selection, in the field of testing sense perceptions very accurate determinations can be made, and are made for several classes of workers. For example, locomotive engineers are all tested for eye defect or color blindness; in most States automobile licenses are not granted to the hard-of-hearing or otherwise defective. A recent innovation in England is the testing of the sense of touch where it plays an important part in the vocation—fabric workers, surgeons, dentists, high-class mechanics, can all have their fitness for their tasks at least partially determined. Psychology is not yet an infallible touchstone, but its aid would undoubtedly improve present haphazard methods of hiring and firing.



## The End of American Populism

SOMETIMES it is called Liberalism. Once, not so long ago, it was termed Progressivism, but William Allen White, writing in *Scribner's* for June, prefers to use a word that most of us had discarded—namely, Populism. The four great leaders in the movement which Mr. White describes by that term have all passed away. They were Bryan, Roosevelt, La Follette, and Wilson. In Mr. White's opinion the deaths of those four men meant the closing of an epoch in American history. Thirty years ago Bryan was heading the forces of discontent in the fight for free silver coinage. A decade later, Roosevelt, in the White House, was realizing some of Bryan's visions—not in the matter of free coinage, which Roosevelt always staunchly opposed; but in various governmental policies for which Bryan's campaigns had partially prepared the country. Bryan called it "stealing his clothes." "But Roosevelt did not wear Bryan's clothes," says Mr. White, "if he did steal them."

The Roosevelt policies were realizable ideals. He took the natural resources of the country from local exploiters and put them in the hands of government departments. He built the Panama Canal. He intervened for peace in the Russo-Japanese war. He put the makers of food under government inspection. He regulated the railroads, corrected many evils of the great corporations. By administration and by legislation he created new standards in the relations between Capital and Labor. He gave vigor to the civil service rules, and secured additional legislation.

He created a public opinion which held ten years after he left office, and forced through the administrations of President Taft and President Wilson such a sheaf of measures inspired by a modern attitude toward capital and society as in effect revolutionized the American ideal. Men hooted, when Roosevelt was new to the White House, that he had discovered the Golden Rule and the Ten Commandments. That is exactly what he was called to do; to furnish a new conscience that would reconstruct a menacing plutocracy into a modern democracy.

In Mr. White's opinion, Roosevelt reached his climax as a leader in 1912. In his later years, as critic of the Wilson policies, he was no longer at his best.

The best Roosevelt was robustly, even hilariously, constructive. As a critic he carped without the gaiety. The joyous resilience was gone that once revealed the eternal youth in him. So far as his epoch was affected, he passed with the battle of Armageddon in 1912—a sturdy, dashing figure

with the vitality of a bull, the spirit of a fawn, more curiosity than a monkey, and the prescience of an Olympian god. He had that most unusual combination in man, personal charm and loyalty. His apparent vanity was subdued by a gorgeous sense of humor, which gave him perspective on himself. No one ever said such keen things about him as he said himself; and no one enjoyed more than he the meanest quip of his enemies. He was an aristocratic democrat, with sense of no inferiority in the presence of kings, nor of superiority among servants.

Mr. White describes Senator LaFollette as the antithesis of Roosevelt:

Where Roosevelt was robust, enthusiastic, ruthlessly rollicking, but rarely personally bitter, La Follette was dogged, deadly implacable, uncompromising, and wicked in his hatreds, which were generally well placed. LaFollette was indefatigable where Roosevelt was vigorous. Roosevelt was content with general results. LaFollette loved details. Roosevelt would take half a loaf where LaFollette preferred hunger and a cause unsatisfied. Roosevelt had social relations with his political adversaries. LaFollette had no time for soirées of any kind, and Roosevelt loved them. So they suspected each other, and each worked in his own way.

Mr. White credits Wilson with "turning the hunger of the Democratic party from spoils into a constructive force that would enact into laws the program which Bryan and Roosevelt had championed." The Populist pledges for a Federal Reserve Act, a Banking Act, the establishing of the Federal Trade Commission, the Tariff Commission the Panama Tolls Treaty, the eight-hour day, and the Seamen's Act, which was LaFollette's measure, were achieved under Wilson in the form of laws on the statute-books.

The improvement that has come about in the past twenty years in the distribution of wealth cannot, of course, be attributed to the political struggle led by Bryan, LaFollette, Roosevelt, and Wilson. Mr. White does not so attribute it. He recognizes the fact that a change in the status of the manual worker has taken place all over the world and this has been helped by mass production. It is his belief that the spirit of the Christian philosophy has been responsible for much of the change.

Indeed, this spirit—this widening of the sense of duty in the heart of man, this practical application of the Golden Rule to the common affairs of men—has brought the "more abundant life" toward which the Nazarene philosopher looked, and for which he made his great sacrifice.

## Commission Government as India Knows It

IN INDIA, since the time of Manu, the Hindu lawgiver, there has been a system of indirect commission government that to-day carries tremendous significance in the reconciliation of native peoples to foreign rule. In the *Journal of the East India Association* for January there is reprinted a paper read before the association October 19, 1925, by Mr. C. A. Silberrad in which he says that the village panchayat has nothing ideal as opposed to the practical about it:

It is merely a committee of the chief residents of a village, recognized by their fellow residents as the most influential in the place; the number may be the five (panch) implied by the name, but very often is not. Its origin is lost in the mists of antiquity, and it doubtless grew up naturally without anything akin to the "social contract" or other invention of the idealists—being the natural result of the efforts of a self-contained community living largely in isolation and largely free from any centralized governmental control to manage their own affairs and supplement what the Government failed to provide. . . . In every village of that part of India is to be found the "athai," or place for village meetings, generally under a large "pipal" (Ficus religiosa) tree, and one or more men recognized as the village leaders, and others as their coadjutors. So far as it is possible to reduce to the cold language of legality a system which has grown up of itself, it appeared that there were a certain number of men recognized as fit to serve on a panchayat, with one or two leaders who invariably did so. From among these a selection would be made according to the matter to be decided. There would usually be at least one member of the cast of each dis-  
tant.

And now as regards the cases these panchayats would decide: those most commonly reported were such as would form the subject of a civil suit, or if criminal, would be compoundable. Thus many disputes as to sale, division, or inheritance of land, preëmption, division of produce, damage by or to cattle, and matrimonial, assault, and libel cases were so dealt with, as also undoubtedly were not a few petty thefts and other cognizable crimes, though for reasons already given it was much harder to obtain details of such. . . .

Then, again, the panchayat would sometimes arrange for the repair of the village well or tank, or the maintenance of the school.

In the Punjab a new Village Panchayat Act took effect in 1922 and confers administrative criminal and civil judicial powers. The chief opposition has come from the official hierarchy, the army of subordinate officials, and lawyers.

Mr. R. K. Sorabji presented a paper on the "Warp and Woof of the Fabric of Indian Life," in which he called attention to the fact that the British have made a

most successful warp with the strands of justice, education, finance, irrigation, transport and communication, organization, defence, banking, missionary effort and industry; but that the woof of the fabric of the State must come through whole-hearted coöperation of the Indians themselves, for

The warp, as indicated, will do for any part of India. It may be that there cannot be the same woof for all parts of India since the different parts differ so very much. But if the warp be the same, different woofs will not make the fabrics so very different that they cannot combine to make a united whole. It is worth considering whether it would not be better to get used from now to the idea of differing woofs as more likely to give a satisfactory combining whole, than determining on a one-woof-whole fabric which might be liable to rents. . . .

Mahatma Gandhi has familiarized India with the idea of spinning. Here is work of the kind: work far more in accordance with the Mahatma's selfless principles than the mere weaving of one's own garments, namely the weaving of a lasting fabric for the good of all India—a fabric the weaving of the woof of which, in common effort, will draw together all the different sects and communities into that oneness without which there can be no real Swaraj. It would be a continued opportunity for Britain and India to make a fabric far more glorious than any cloth of gold or silver turned out by the famous looms of India—a fabric which could not be termed Western or Eastern, for the blending of the warp and the woof will be so perfect that men will feel that the hands that wove it were directed by a power which is not of this earth.

Such a plan might well work as a solution of the Philippines problem, or, in fact, be applied to mixed populations anywhere. Sir Charles E. Yate, in commenting upon Mr. Sorabji's paper, suggested that half a dozen Englishmen and Indians working in combination, sitting alternately round a table and working together, produced best results, while lining up the English and the Indians on opposite sides of a council table resulted in clash. He believed there should be a Legislative Assembly more representative of the masses of the Indian people, and agreed that India and not the present politicians must "provide the woof." He is reported as holding the belief that "a self-governing scheme could be obtained by commencing at the bottom with the village panchayats and the indigenous organizations of the masses, and building up on those, but not by introducing legislative assemblies and councils from the top. When this was done there might be some chance of real self-government."

## About Advertising

SO BESIEGED is the public on every side with increasingly attractive, entertaining, informing, even artistic advertising, that humble editors—of this magazine, for instance—sometimes wonder how their part of the magazine may hope to keep the reader's interest at all. So very attractive, so very alluring are these advertisements, and so new is the present development, that all honest efforts to inquire into its true service to the community should receive a warm welcome.

Thus, Earnest Elmo Calkins, a pioneer and leader in the advertising field, winner of Edward W. Bok's Harvard Advertising Award for "distinguished personal service in advertising," writes an article of interest and usefulness in the May *Atlantic Monthly* (Boston). He sets out to investigate the questions, Does advertising pay the public? Are the people as a whole better off for advertising? Is it a benefit to mankind? He looks carefully into both sides of the question—the points made by Mr. Stuart Chase in his "Tragedy of Waste," which might be said to give the complete case against advertising are set over against the survey of the advertising field as a leader in the profession knows it, and as a just observer of present-day life might judge of the part it plays.

One of the principal issues is the reliability of advertising. Mr. Calkins says the advertising profession has the same interest in exterminating false and misleading advertising that the stock exchange has in barring wildcat stock, or the medical associations in suppressing quacks, or the bar associations in excluding shysters. For the value of advertising to the advertiser as well as the public, depends on the confidence of the public.

The amount of worthless advertising today "is negligible beside the body of legitimate advertising. Few reputable mediums are open to it. No advertising agent of standing will accept it." A Vigilance Committee has been formed for the exact purpose of suppressing frauds.

Of the billboard, which so often brings the wrath of the public down on the advertisers' heads, Mr. Calkins reports progress in the direction of beauty. This movement, moreover, is coming from within, for the company which controls them is now

making great efforts to erect neat and attractive stands, to place them where they will not mar the scenery, and to censor their contents. Above and beyond this, billboards are but a small fraction of the present volume of advertising.

Mr. Calkins points out that these objections and answers do not, however, go at the root of the matter. Of course advertising has disadvantages, as has any business. The vital question is therefore this:

Does advertising, with all these disadvantages, real and imaginary, its pervasiveness, its vulgarity, its hypocrisy, its exaggeration, its use for unworthy purposes, its admitted wastefulness, its lack of wholly scientific methods, does it serve a useful, necessary purpose?

The affirmative answer Mr. Calkins finds in an investigation of present civilization. Good business means a brisk interchange of goods and money. Advertising has existed since the first shopman tacked a sign up over his shop saying he had goods to sell: to-day not enough people can see that sign to make his market big enough for the gross production which reduces prices. So he advertises nationally. This brings in the retail dealer, whose purpose becomes largely the trading in nationally advertised goods.

Your material life consists of a long list of named products, utensils, commodities, foods, wearing-apparel, toilet articles, tools with which you perform the operation of living—feeding your family, keeping house, dressing yourself and your children—playthings and work things. Not all of these articles are vitally necessary. Some of them may have been adopted through the persuasiveness of advertising. But there is an irreducible minimum which you cannot do without, our modern civilization being what it is.

Perhaps living nationally, what is called "big business" is a bad idea, says Mr. Calkins. But since we do live nationally, the only way we can do it and keep going is by extensive advertising. The result is the difference between our mothers' kitchens and our wives', our fathers' shaving apparatus, and our own. "To keep house with what was available—even to the rich—half a century ago was an art handed down from generation to generation, which happily has been lost, except among the newly arrived foreign-born.

Women did not demand things; they did not know that they were possible. A woman knew a broom; she never imagined

a vacuum cleaner. To make her buy it, it was necessary to reduce the cost by selling it to the whole country. It is apparent that this wholesale distribution of a godsend to the housewife is not, in effect at least, a wholly selfish project.

Mr. Calkins compares advertising to the railroad. The railroad is a means to a desirable end, a dirty, noisy, ugly means, perhaps, but the necessity of moving passen-

gers and freight overcomes the aesthetic objections. Some day it may become beautiful. So some day we may have ideal advertising. Both railroads and advertisers are traveling along the road to this end very rapidly. And as advertising improves, business, says Mr. Calkins "must live up to it." Improvement of factory conditions, coöperation between competitors are two of many by-products.

## Religion as Discussed To-day

RECENTLY speakers for religion have entered a new medium for transmitting their words to the public. Dr. Cadman's newspaper counsels, following his radio addresses, the many other prominent clergymen who are delivering their messages through the public press, and in all ways expressing themselves through popular channels, are indicators of a new spirit towards religion, of which a layman, Bruce Barton, son of the distinguished preacher and writer, Dr. William E. Barton, and himself a successful business man, is a leading exponent. His editorials and magazine articles, his two books, his addresses, have such titles as "Christ as a Business Man," "Religion a Business Man's Concern," "Commonsense Religion," and the like.

This is an age of journalism, and these indices of a new order are not received with the cries of Blasphemy! Heresy! which would have greeted them twenty years ago. Preachers and sincerely religious men, troubled by the slack hold the church has over this business-absorbed generation, are merely following the old law, and when in Rome are doing as the Romans.

Mr. Barton's messages are phrased in a business man's direct, concise English. They stress the side of the Bible leaders which will appeal to the present day reader. They interpret Christ's teachings as the modern man and woman will best understand and respect them. And he never forgets to impress upon us that these were leaders of men, organizers whose work is still the most important factor in our lives to-day.

Mr. Barton has been issuing articles and books for a period of years. His first book "What Shall It Profit A Man" received relatively little attention. His latest book,

"The Man Nobody Knows: A Discovery of Jesus" has sold over a million copies. A third, "The Book Nobody Knows"—the Bible—is in preparation. Mr. Barton writes a monthly editorial in the *Red Book Magazine* (Chicago) and has had a series recently on the Great Men of the Bible in *Collier's Weekly* (New York).

In the introduction to "The Man Nobody Knows" Mr. Barton tells how it came to be written. The little boy who had repudiated Jesus as "a sissy" and "a kill-joy" grows up to be a business man. He reads the Bible for himself, and finds:

A physical weakling! Where did they get that idea? Jesus pushed a plane and swung an adze; he was a successful carpenter. He slept outdoors and spent his days walking around his favorite lake. His muscles were so strong that when he drove the money changers out, nobody dared to opposed him!

A kill-joy! He was the most popular dinner guest in Jerusalem! The criticism which proper people made was that he spent too much time with publicans and sinners (very good fellows, on the whole, the man thought) and enjoyed society too much. They called him a "wine bibber and a gluttonous man."

A failure! He picked up twelve men from the bottom ranks of business and forged them into an organization that conquered the world.

When the man had finished his reading he exclaimed, "This is a man nobody knows."

His monthly editorials in the *Red Book Magazine* are common-sense talks about man's adjustment to life, always disclosing as sincerely religious a modern viewpoint. In the May issue he writes on the extension of a man's life and service by courage and faith. "What effect have anger and envy on our arteries?" he asks. "Not being a scientist I can not tell. But when the laws of the mind are finally discovered and charted, I suspect that one of them will be this: if you do most of your thinking about other people, the chances are that you will have ten more good years of life."



## The American Film

FROM time to time, in the press here and abroad appear discussions of the moralizing and demoralizing influence of the cinema pictures emanating from the United States. In *Liberty* (New York) Brenda Neland recently contended that a large part of the unreality and trashiness of the pictures shown on the screen is due less to the producers than the American censors and the American public.

To censorship, or the anticipation of censorship, she lays much of the moving pictures' "strange, illogical, and moralizing flap-doodle." There are seven States with censorship boards in leading cities; where this is not the case there are ministers and club women keeping their eye on the films which come to town. To this unofficial censorship there is little objection, for it has turned out that private citizens are on the whole tolerant. It is the official state and city censors who cut great chunks out of films, frighten producers and directors into changing the plots of great novels and historical events so that the censors will not find them shocking.

Miss Neland cites the fact that a moving picture of "Hamlet," played by an excellent cast and a great Scandinavian actress, is at present lying on the shelf because it can not be shown in America with four murders in it.

But the worst of it, according to Miss Neland, is that the moving-picture industry, fearing the power of the censor to destroy millions of dollars' worth of their invest-

ments, in wonderful pictures beautifully photographed and skilfully acted, must put "a lot of phony history and the puerile morals of the Elsie books."

Miss Neland concludes by quoting George Bernard Shaw's dictum: "The danger of the cinema is not the danger of immorality but the danger of morality."

From a different standpoint, a writer in the Swedish review, *Svensk Tidskrift*, declares less against censorship, than against American taste which, it declares, is a demoralizing influence upon the life of the Swedish nation.

With the coming of the American film, the moving-picture industry assumed gigantic proportions, and represented such great investment that the taste of the masses had necessarily to be catered to. This has resulted in one of the most objectionable types of pictures—those depicting the luxurious life of the idle rich. The *dramatis personae* float about in elegant motor cars from scene to scene of the greatest grandeur, occupying themselves with flirtations and dancing. No garments are too costly, no expenditure too reckless. The result is an atmosphere wholly nauseating. Not a feeling, not an expression is genuine, and the whole is based upon a credo of admiration for idle riches.

The need for reform, *Svensk Tidskrift* thinks, is urgent, and the means is an open, free, and expert criticism unfettered by economic considerations.

## Rose Macaulay Looks at London

THE author of "Potterism," "Dangerous Ages," "Told by an Idiot," and other books and articles, writes in the April issue of *Current History* (New York) on the immense change wrought by the last dozen years on London.

During the war London, like other places, plunged into Cimmerian blackness and infernal activities, says Miss Macaulay. But since, it has returned to all and more than its pre-war gaiety and brightness. The London night sky is of recent years a blaze of electric light signs, rivalling New York's White Way. The streets are forever being taken up and the houses taken

down—perhaps as a solution for unemployment, Miss Macaulay suggests, for it is hard to see that there is any change, excepting that the new buildings are bigger and uglier, and the streets "sprouting" with monuments.

The chief change and the most important in the streets was that they were considerably fuller. They seemed in fact, by 1926, to be quite full, though this, of course, was not actually the case. Daily life and work were as usual, only at higher tension than before.

This tension, the feeling of change in London, Miss Macaulay, contrary to custom, credits to the middle-aged and old

alone. Of the younger generation (people under twenty-five or twenty-six) she says:

Peace found them unshattered, undemoralized and unchanged by the war. The young of 1926 were much the same as the young of 1914. What changes had occurred among the young were common to all ages, points of view and habits caught from their elders, the war generations.

Styles in 1926 reached a high point in the history of modern clothing, says Miss Macaulay, for commodiousness, attractiveness and neatness. Because of the impoverishment of many who had been rich, and the enrichment of many who had been poor before, and the consequent changes in the habits of both, the social order has undergone a very real change. The huge and formal ball has surrendered to the night club and cabaret, the large and stately home to the flat or hotel suite. The number of revues, plays and cinemas has greatly increased; the radio also plays a prominent part in the transformation. Moral standards also have indubitably changed, although in Miss Macaulay's opinion not as a result of the war primarily, and rather more among the "middle-young" than the young.

Amazing freedom of speech and press is found everywhere, excepting, perhaps, in the drama, which is still somewhat trammelled "owing to the curious and incalculable activities" of the censor. More books are published, particularly more biography and memoirs. Of poetry there is less—and worse—than immediately preceding and during the war, when England, according to Miss Macaulay, abounded in young poets of unusual promise.

In spite of the fact that political life is on the whole quieter, no one having been found to take the place of the suffragists and the Irish, the press is even more sensational. Although church-going has dwindled there appears to be more interest in the subject of religion than ever before, and soap-box orators draw great crowds in parks and on corners. Underground and overground lines of communication have developed beyond belief in all directions, so that more people go both to visit the suburbs on Sunday and to live there.

A rather larger, much fuller, much noisier city, clearer of smoke and empty of hansom cabs; the same people but more of them; that is the London of 1926.

## The Airplane Brings Medical Aid

THE increased practicability and use of the airplane promises a solution for Australia's problem of providing proper medical aid for a small population spread over an unbelievably large area. According to Mr. H. C. Loeffler of the Relief Division of the League of Red Cross Societies, writing in the Red Cross magazine, *The World's Health* (Paris), a marvelous change is being brought about in the "back blocks" where previously one doctor has cared—largely by telegraph—for persons distributed over an area the size of Great Britain.

In a country with an area about equal to that of the United States there are only five and a half millions of persons, or less than the population of New York City. These people are widely scattered over the country, excepting only the large arid area in the middle South. The railroads as yet hardly tap more than the coastal strips along the eastern and southern sides of the continent, and spurs penetrating into the wilderness from the coast are few and short.

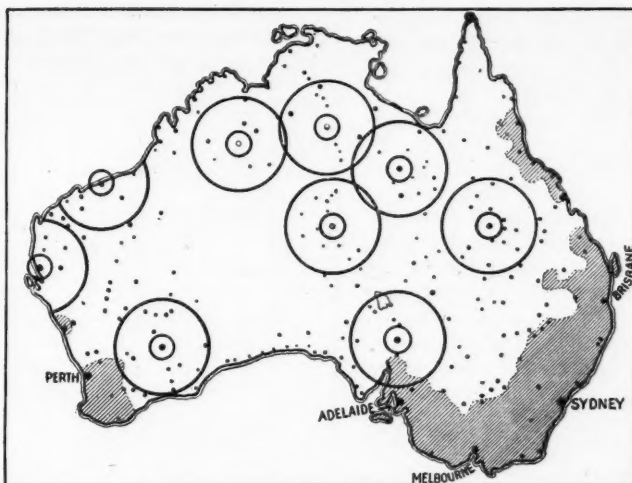
Where telegraph lines exist a person desiring medical aid makes his way as best he can to the nearest telegraph station and receives a diagnosis and prescription over the wires from the doctor, who may be many hundreds of miles away. Medicine chests are scattered at various small centers in the area each doctor attempts to cover; from the standard drugs and simple surgical appliances available the sick person must carry out the doctor's orders.

With the coming of the flying doctor, a new era has begun. Impassable roads, the absence of bridges and the like no longer impede transportation, while the wide range of operation of the airplane has made possible the employment of physicians in sparsely settled territories which heretofore could not support a doctor.

The activity is as yet limited, but it is the aim of the Australian Inland Mission, long instrumental in supplying nursing homes in the Outer Bush, to extend the service. The central region of the continent has been mapped into districts. Flying doctors will

be transported by airplane over regions with radii of two hundred miles, and it is hoped that a resident nurse can be stationed within one hundred miles of every family in the interior.

A first step in the development of the service is the securing of helpful and inexpensive wireless service, to be used by the comparatively poor bushman himself. Regular mail services already established will also help in this connection. The mail airplanes now carry dentists with their equipment far into the Bush. Settlers make appointments beforehand, perhaps by telegraph, so that no time will be wasted. Similarly, itinerant air-borne teachers are



NINE AIRPLANES, WITH OPERATING RADII OF 200 MILES, AS INDICATED BY THE CIRCLES ABOVE, ARE PROPOSED FOR TRANSPORTING DOCTORS TO THE INTERIOR REGIONS OF AUSTRALIA

conducting classes which conduct themselves between the teachers' visits.

## Facts About Organic Heart Disease

IT IS probably a far too little known fact that heart disease in its various manifestations is first in the order of causes of death, and also high in the amount of damage it does through disability and invalidism. In a report by Dr. Louis I. Dublin, the distinguished statistician of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, in the recent issue of the journal of the American Heart Association, an astonishing array of statistics is presented which clearly demonstrates the need for and usefulness of such an Association.

Dr. Dublin declares that the annual total of deaths in the United States is close to 200,000. At the age of thirty-five, the probability of dying from heart disease is, for males, nearly four times that for tuberculosis, and for females, nearly six times. This revolutionary change has taken place in the general mortality picture during the last twenty-five years largely as a result of the development of preventive medicine and the public health movement in the war on tuberculosis.

With the lessening of the dangers of tuberculosis, many persons who would otherwise have succumbed survive to be

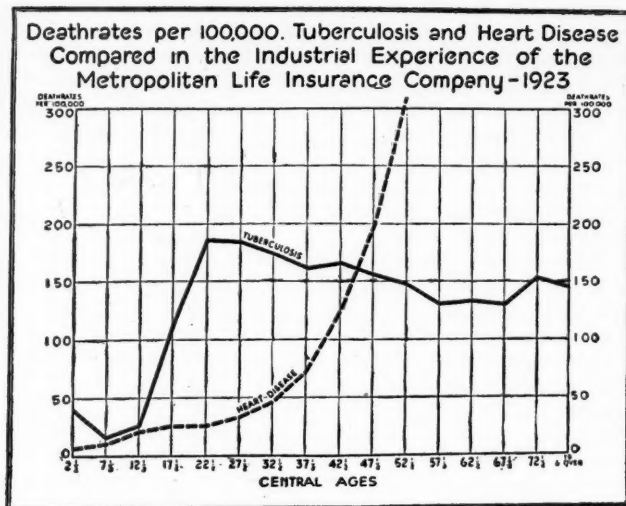
struck down by heart disease, cancer, apoplexy or Bright's disease, against which the medical profession are not as well organized or equipped.

"It is for this reason that I consider heart disease the outstanding problem in contemporary preventive medicine . . ." says Dr. Dublin. Investigation of the mortality rates since 1911 shows a small but steady increase. While the disease, according to the insurance companies' findings is generally considered preëminently one, of old age, one-sixth of the insured who died from heart disease were at their prime; 68 per cent. were not yet sixty-five.

For the cardiac cripple, Dr. Dublin is able to produce less definite and reliable information, due to several reasons which he cites. Only recently has any effort been made to gather figures. On the findings of life insurance companies and the Life Extension Institute it is estimated that close to two million persons suffer from definite organic heart disease. Dr. Dublin calls on the cardiac clinics and on private practicing physicians to help in the work of establishing records and statistics which will be of service in analyzing and

eventually diminishing the causes, the invalidism, and the mortality rates for heart disease.

The work of the American Heart Association, as defined briefly in an editorial in this same issue, is largely to awaken a public opinion which may serve to lessen heart disease as it has served to make the field less fertile for tuberculosis. Its services have established or widened the scope of heart centers throughout the country, while the leading specialists of the nation are active in its membership and in cooperation.



## The Sporting Life of Ancient Greece

WE ARE all aware of how frequently the athlete and athletic contest are portrayed in Greek art, but let us, with a recent New York Metropolitan Museum of Art brochure for a moment forget these statues, reliefs, and vase paintings as works of art and consider them purely as the sporting pages of Greek life.

To a nation of alleged sport-enthusiasts this recently issued brochure, describing and lavishly illustrating the many varieties of sport enjoyed by the Hellenes, may be of particular interest. In the introduction Miss Christine Alexander says:

Athletics held a place in the life and education of the Greek people from the earliest times, and played an important part in their history. . . . The vitality of their athletic spirit is shown by the presence of Greek games on track and field to-day.

We are fortunately able to understand quite clearly the different athletic events, for Greek artists found much of their inspiration in scenes of the gymnasium and palaestra. Vases, our most important record, reflect this phase of life in great detail, while bronze and marble sculptures, gems and coins also add to our knowledge.

The palaestra was a place particularly for wrestling attached to the gymnasium. The whole structure was usually in the shape of a hollow square, the necessary buildings around the edge, in the center an open court. Around the court there might be a covered colonnade for use as a track

in bad weather. Here the athletes practised wherever possible to the music of the flute which served to time the action and give precision of movement.

The Greek pentathlon (five contests) corresponds largely to our track meet to-day, consisting of the foot-race, broad jump, diskos and javelin throw, and wrestling match. The foot-race varied in length from the 200-yard dash to a long-distance run of nearly six miles. In many of the races the runners wore armor,—such races appealing to the Greeks as a practical military exercise.

The only form of jumping that had a place in Greek contests was the broad jump, although there is evidence that the high jump and pole vault were not unknown. Stone "jumping-weights" were carried in each hand to give impetus to the swing of the arms and so increase the length of the jump. If the athlete did not finish his jump standing it was not counted.

In throwing the diskos the styles of individuals of course varied, but it was done on the whole much as it is to-day. The principle of the throw is clearly demonstrated in Myron's well-known statue, the Diskobolos. The javelin was thrown both for distance and at a target by aid of a leather thong bound around the shaft near the center of gravity, which imparted a



whirling motion. It was also thrown from horse-back, often at a target as the contestants galloped past.

The Greeks distinguished two kinds of wrestling,—where a fall on the back, shoulders, or hip counted a fair loss, and where the struggle was continued on the ground after the fall. All sorts of devices and holds were in use, such as the "flying mare" and "the heave."

Boxing was a no less popular sport. The boxer always aimed for the head of his opponent. His fists were strapped with thongs to form a sort of glove, and later removable leather gloves were devised. All the pictures show the boxers absolutely unprotected and making no effort to protect anything but their heads. They are stocky, tremendous creatures, several showing the broken noses and cauliflower ears we rather expect of our boxers. Unfairness was not unknown in the Golden Age: one little kylix from the British museum showing a trainer beating with a stick a



THE TOP OF THE SWING

boxer who is gouging his opponent's eye.

In horse-races the Greeks rode without saddle or stirrup, and young boys were frequently the jockeys. All sorts of chariot races were in vogue, the four-horse race with two-wheel open chariot being most common.

These are perhaps the best known Greek sports. Ball-games, although popular and occasionally depicted, were not generally chosen as subjects for works of art because they were not included in the regular gymnasium activities. One statue base however, shows a "hockey" game in progress. All the players

carry hockey sticks, two are ready to bully off, although their sticks are in a reversed position. Another relief shows two teams confronting each other, one member about to throw the ball with all his force into the air, and a member of the opposing team preparing to catch it. Another universal activity was fencing. Youths were taught to fence in heavy armor, to the music of a flute, as a military exercise.

## Belgian Literature Since the War

IT IS a truism to state that no country suffered as much nor was as greatly changed by the war as Belgium, and that not only her economic and social life but her intellectual existence was completely overturned by five years of deprivation, danger and horror. In *La Grande Revue* (Paris) for March the author of an article on the present-day literature of Belgium says: "It is not a decade but almost a century from the year before the war until to-day." Changes that would normally have required generations—of attitude, of habit, in population—have come about almost overnight.

What is called the Renaissance in Belgian literature found its root in the splendid prose of Maeterlinck, the magnificent lyric fougues of Emile Verhaeren, and

died with the invasion of 1914. During the war Belgian literature consisted of secretly published heroic propaganda, a small number of verses by young men in the trenches, and the tragic utterances of a few of the older writers in enforced exile from their country. When peace came the Belgian writers still found their whole souls obsessed with war. A book of memorable war notes by Georges Garnir, and a small volume of poetry by Albert Giraud are almost all that will probably survive from the post-war period. For many years, the writers, having exhausted the theme of the war, have not been able to free themselves to look on the new life of their country, to tune themselves to peace and new hopes.

Their silence had also another pertinent cause—a material one. Even now there

is no money with which to print or buy books. The prices of paper and ink are exorbitant; the salaries of the men who set the type far exceed the salaries of the authors and editors who compose the words. The patriotic editors who are directing Belgium's restricted newspapers are living for the most part in great want. There is no space, furthermore, in the cramped present-day sheet, for book reviews or book advertising, and the author who can get his book published cannot sell it.

Paradoxically enough, the author declares that although practically no new Belgian books are appearing, the people are far more interested in reading than ever before. This the author ascribes in large part to the greater confinement, unemployment, the lack of theaters and concerts, etc. And yet these myriad readers cannot afford to buy the books of their own nation. They patronize lending societies, who of course carry the few Belgian issues, but to supply the steadily increasing demand must largely provide the public with the recent books of other countries. It is estimated that the circulating libraries,

almost non-existent before the war, now have some 300,000 clients.

Authors who might expect to sell thousands of copies must now be content to sell a dozen or so to the libraries. Efforts have been made to prevent this exploitation, which, while it is diffusing the love of literature more widely than ever before, seems to be condemning the native literature to death. A different kind of effort to restore the almost extinguished flame is found in the recently established *Académie*, patterned on the forty "immortals" of France. Prizes and contests stimulate new writers; literary gatherings provide those who cannot afford to publish with the perhaps melancholy satisfaction of reading their works aloud.

Only the handful of established writers whose signatures almost guarantee sales may hope to persuade an editor to undertake the launching of a new manuscript. Of the new writers whose names have become known since the war—Arnold Gottin, Hubert Stiernet, Albert Mockel, Louis Dalattre, Ruet and Gauchez, and one or two women authors, according to *La Grande Revue*, make up the score.

## A Thoroughly Renovated Sphinx

THAT landmark of oldest Egypt, the Sphinx, hardly more of an antiquity to us than it was 3000 years ago when Thothmes IV last had the sand cleared away and the monument restored has for the past six months been undergoing excavation and repair. The Sphinx which has emerged out of the sand and the scaffolding is an even more impressive, if somewhat grotesque, figure than of old. The battered stone head with which we are all familiar now surmounts two great paws in front, while a huge body, presumably that of a lion, extends 172 feet in the rear.

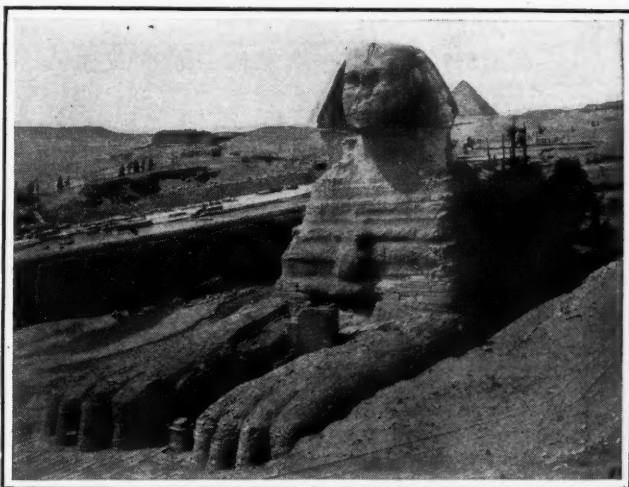
The London *Observer* published a summary by Dr. Hall, of the Egyptology division of the British Museum, of the repairs that were then being undertaken by the Egyptian Government under the direction of M. Baraize. Although various efforts have been made in times past to disencumber the giant beast of encroaching sands, the Sphinx has not been visible from the tip of his paws to the curve of his tail since Ptolemaic days. In addition to the

gigantic task of removing the sand and building a wall which will prevent its immediate return, other restorations are imperative, says Dr. Hall. While the familiar broken nose is not to be replaced, nor the false beard which once graced the chin, the large piece of headdress at the back of the neck, which broke off only recently, must be renewed to protect the exposed surface from weather. "If it is not now taken care of," says Dr. Hall, "one of these fine days the neck would wear through and the head of the Sphinx crash down upon the sand. It is true that the well-known scraggy or plucked chicken look of the Sphinx, to which we are so used, will now disappear, but perhaps that will be no loss."

The *Sphere* (London) recently printed two pages of unusual and interesting pictures with accompanying text, showing the repairs under way. The author assures us that the appearance of the head has been changed as little as was commensurate with the preservation of the monument for future ages. One picture shows

the slab between the great paws with their masonry toes which was set up by Thothmes IV to commemorate his clearing of the Sphinx. This was done in gratitude to the Great God Ra whom the Sphinx is said to represent, and who had promised Thothmes his throne in a dream. There is also a Roman altar between the paws.

A special article by Neil MacNeil in the *New York Times* for May 2 tells us that in addition to excavating, Thothmes encased all but the head in limestone masonry, and painted the whole red. The remains of the masonry and paint are clearly discernible on the recently uncovered portions. The damage to the nose of the Sphinx and various other disfigurements are credited to fanatic Arabs and Mamelukes of about the twelfth century A. D. We are also reminded that this Sphinx differs from the Greek one of riddle-fame—a woman with the body of a lion and the wings of a bird. The head of this Sphinx is probably a portrait of the pharaoh who built it.



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#### THE SPHINX AS IT LOOKS TO-DAY

(Behind the Sphinx on the plain of Gizeh one of the two great pyramids can be seen; the other also lies behind, and to the left, of the Sphinx. While for six months several hundred workers have been clearing away the sand until the structure is visible down to its masonry base, the head and shoulders have been in scaffolding for needed repairs to ensure its preservation against weather. Cement has been poured into the fissures which have been rapidly forming and portions which have broken off, weakening the structure, have been restored)

The Sphinx is hewn out of the solid rock, with the head and shoulders fashioned from added blocks of stone. It is  $172\frac{1}{2}$  feet long, as has been said, and is 66 feet high, from its crown to the pavement which surrounds it. An idea of the size of the head may be gained from the height of the ear, which is  $4\frac{1}{2}$  feet.

## Albania's Present Outlook

**ALTHOUGH** Albania has been a sovereign state since 1912, very little is known of her history, people, and prospects by those outside of Balkan circles. The last fifteen years are a record of turbulent and protracted revolution, foreign occupation and more revolution. It is only recently that the political future has looked at all bright says Mr. W. F. Stirling in the *Nineteenth Century* (London).

The Albanians, Mr. Stirling tells us, claim to be descendants of the Illyrians, who preceded the ancient Greeks in the Balkans. In Grecian days, the present capital, Durazzo, was the flourishing city of Epidamnus or Dyrrhachium. Following down through Roman days, the country

was well populated and prosperous, and had the added distinction of possessing a leading university. During the fifteenth century it was overrun by the Turks under whose domination it remained for four hundred years.

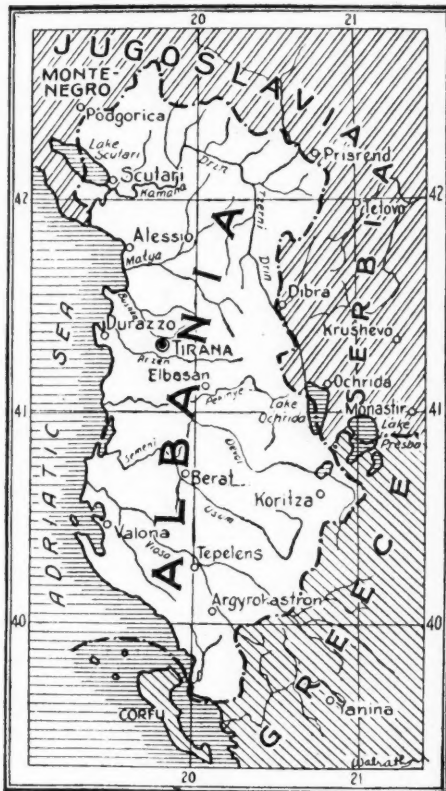
As a result, while Christianity endured in the Catholic form in the mountain regions, the rest of the country became largely Moslem, with Greek Orthodox adherents in the South. This is an added cause of strife, now that the country has achieved independence.

The national flag was hoisted at Valona in November, 1912, precipitating a diplomatic war between Italy and Austria, neither of which could afford to have

Albania fall under the other's domination. When the Conference of Ambassadors in London dispatched a European Prince to rule over the newly recognized state he was received with acclamation, but retired six months later utterly discouraged by the all too difficult task of organizing a state out of the antagonistic local governments.

During the Great War and since, Albania has been occupied by Austrians, Serbs, Greeks, Italians, and French. In 1920 a new movement to unite Albania established a governing body, and expelled by force the Italians who occupied Valona.

For the next four years her history is a series of plots and counterplots, revolutions and counter-revolutions. The stream of powerful leaders with whom Albania has for generations supplied the Turkish Empire seemed at this critical moment to have run dry—excepting for one man, Ahmed Bey Zogu, who in 1924 overthrew a Bolshevik régime and was proclaimed President of the then-formed Republic.



From Current History  
MAP OF ALBANIA

Ahmed Bey Zogu is a man of about thirty, a Moslem of moderate views and liberal tendencies. His aim is the welding of the racially distinct people within Albanian boundaries. His problem is a difficult one. Albania is about two hundred years behind the rest of Europe in every way. Although the soil is fertile, the art of husbandry has not changed since the 13th century; poverty is great, and the standard of living so low that there is no incentive to better things. The manifold resources, coal, iron, copper, chrome, bauxite, probable oil and extensive timber tracts are practically inaccessible because there are no adequate roads and bridges.

The coastal plane between Durazzi and Valona is annually flooded by three great rivers. A little drainage and the curbing of the rivers would free these regions of malaria, and make ideal and extensive cotton growing lands. At present, the extreme poverty of the people, although they are taxed very heavily, does not provide the government with a sufficient revenue for such improvement.

One of the services of the new government is the extermination of the blood feud or vendetta. Disputes with neighboring States have also been settled or compromised. With the aid of Italian and Serbian banking interests, a national currency is to be introduced and a national bank established. A loan is being undertaken with Italy to provide funds for communication systems, ports, bridges, and railroads. Oil-boring concessions have been granted to five important foreign companies, and the indications are that oil will be found.

Various foreign experts have been called in to advise in the Departments of the Interior, Public Works, and Agriculture. The army, seat of much political intrigue, is being greatly reduced, and a gendarmerie established to keep internal order.

For the tourist, Albania is a country of interest and beauty and discomfort. Travel is partly by Fords, partly by pack-horses, along roads described by the author as "so-called main roads, not nine inches wide, with a sheer wall of rock on one side and 2000 feet drop on the other."

"I suppose it is the only country in the world where a girl may elect to become a man in the eyes of the law, and, under the mountain code, have all the legal status of a man; where a man is not shot at if accompanied by a woman, even if he passes through the country of a tribe with which he may be in deadly blood feud."



## Vestal Virgins of a New Age

**P**OKING gentle fun at himself for his male superiority, Mr. Wickham Steed, editor of the *English Review of Reviews* (London) decries the general lack of information about the services of women in science and reports an interview with one of Britain's leading women electrical engineers to prove his point. Miss Caroline Haslett is secretary of the Electrical Association for Women and her report of its aims and activities comes with particular pertinence at a time when the English coal situation needs every possible gleam of light thrown upon it.

The Electrical Association for Women has as its aim the organization and direction of woman's interest in applying electrical energy to the simplification of home life. The work is being done in a hitherto unbroken, but unbelievably fertile field, according to the tenets of Miss Haslett. It is an excellent sign, says the editor, that women are so bestirring themselves to bring home to electrical manufacturers and the Government the need of creating a market for electrical current and of suiting supply to prospective demand. "When the women are awake, the dull slumbers of male folk are apt to be disturbed."

A smaller, technical organization, the Women's Engineering Society, numbers many distinguished contributors to the advance of science among its members, such as Mrs. Ayrton, who invented the anti-gas fan so widely used during the war.

The work of the larger association is both technical and educational. While not directly connected with the Government Electricity Scheme, it has a direct bearing upon it in that while the Government plan largely concerns itself with the establishment of power stations to provide cheap and uniform current all over the country, the Women's Association is busy with the creation of a demand for the abundant current so provided in one of the greatest potential fields, the home. Men too often forget that household appliances must be made to suit the needs of women, and that the women must also be taught to need and use them.

"You see, we are dealing with an almost incredible amount of ignorance and, at the same time, with a remarkable growth of public interest in scientific questions as bearing upon individual

and domestic life. Let me come back to my women in the home. The time is coming—it is almost here—when women will revolt against domestic drudgery. If they can get rid of coal fires and the attendant dust and dirt, so as not to have the daily grind of dusting the same old room in the same old way; if good and efficient electrical sweepers and cleaners can be brought within their reach at reasonable rates; if they can be taught that it is easier and quicker to cook by electricity, that electrical energy can be made to work their sewing machines and a dozen other appliances connected with house craft, do you not see that the whole status of domestic women will be raised, that they will get a different and more scientific outlook on life, that they will have time to cultivate arts and crafts now almost forgotten, that overcrowding in towns may be relieved by the development of the countryside, where cottage industries may revive in healthy surroundings? If you ask me whether I do not see visions and dream dreams, I do. I see England transformed within five and twenty years and a demand for electrical energy that will probably absorb most of the coal we can produce and give work to your alcohol engines as well."

Miss Haslett answers Mr. Steed's objections about the greater efficiency of gas, the lack of ventilation provided in an electric world, the multiplicity of wiring which the uninformed are likely to picture. Part of the educational work of the association is particularly devoted to lectures and classes in the proper and economical use of the best household devices, with particular attention to the use and mending of fuses. The keenness of the women, says Miss Haslett, is most surprising. In Glasgow, where one such course was given, it was reported that the trade in electric lamps of the best type was brisker than it had ever been before.

A little practical imagination and business spirit will be able to overcome the obstacles presented by high initial cost and the like. Instalment purchase and hire-payment plans will, according to Miss Haslett, do much in this line, as they have already done much.

"I think you are Vestal Virgins tending a new fire in a new age," said Mr. Steed . . . "I hope you will keep very near the elbows of some of the people who are handling the Government Electricity Scheme and that you will inspire your women M. Ps. to peg away if anything seems to be going wrong. You can always remember the case of the Unjust Judge who ended by letting a woman have her own way, 'lest by her continual coming she weary him!'"

# THE NEW BOOKS

## History and Biography

**New England in the Republic, 1776-1850.** By James Truslow Adams. Boston: Little, Brown, and Company. 450 pp. Ill.

Those among our readers who may have had their interest in New England quickened by perusing the articles in this number of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* by Professor Carver, Professor Waugh, Mr. Young and others will surely wish to consult the new volume of Mr. Adams's history of New England. This covers the period from the Declaration of Independence to the middle of the nineteenth century. (Mr. Adams's preceding volumes dealt, respectively, with "The Founding of New England" and "Revolutionary New England.") Oddly enough, so much attention was given by earlier historians to the colonial and revolutionary periods, that New England's era of development in the nineteenth century has usually received a sketchy treatment. Mr. Adams in his new book does much to make up for this neglect on the part of the historians. Especially interesting are his chapters on the growth of trade and manufactures in the years following the War of 1812. As to the Revolution itself, in this and in the preceding volume, Mr. Adams, as he himself puts it, stresses the common man and the struggle for democracy. He is chiefly concerned with the changes in the social structure as a result of the Revolution. It is from this standpoint that Mr. Adams's contribution to the history of New England must be judged.

**"Yellowstone Kelly."** Edited by M. M. Quaife, with a foreword by General Nelson A. Miles, U. S. A. New Haven: University Press. 280 pp. Ill.

Luther S. Kelly, whom General Miles compared with Daniel Boone and David Crockett, as a hero of the American wilderness, is still living in California, although the adventures through which he passed more than half a century ago and the transformations that have followed our retreating western frontier in his lifetime read like chapters in the history of another age than ours. It was fortunate that his memoirs, written with rare skill in narration, are now presented in so attractive a form as in the volume edited by Mr. Quaife for the Yale University Press. It is a part of the story of the West and particularly of the Yellowstone region, which we could ill afford to lose.

**The Story of the Western Railroads.** By Robert E. Riegel. Macmillan. 360 pp.

Railroad-building west of the Mississippi River is so essential a part of our national history that we wonder why no one has tried to cover the subject before in a work of this kind. Dr. Riegel has studied with thoroughness the financing, engineering and

political aspects of our western railroads from the beginning of their construction to the present time. No important phase of the subject is neglected. His book constitutes a comprehensive survey of the whole field.

**The Advancing South.** By Edwin Mims. Doubleday, Page and Company. 339 pp.

Professor Mims, of Vanderbilt University, contributed to a recent issue of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* which described the progress recently made by the Southern States. Dr. Mims has been a teacher of Southern youth for many years and has long worked with leaders of public opinion in the South. The present volume is made up of a series of interesting essays which his sub-title describes as "Stories of Progress and Reaction." Among the topics treated are "Judging Public Opinion in the South"; "Walter Hines Page, Friendly Critic of the South"; "Colleges Under Fire"; "The Ebbing Tide of Color"; "The Revolt Against Chivalry"; and the present struggle between Fundamentalists and Modernists. Taken as a whole, the book is an account of the liberal movement in the South in church, in politics, and in education.

**The Political Education of Woodrow Wilson.** By James Kerney. Century Company. 524 pp.

Woodrow Wilson's career having been explored from almost every angle, it remained for the editor and publisher of the *Trenton Times* to admit the general public to the one part of it which has been least perfectly understood—the period of the New Jersey Governorship. Mr. Kerney's offices as guide do not end, however, with the transition from the local to the national field of politics. He was keenly interested in the fortunes of the Wilson Administration at Washington, and his book carries the story on through the early successes, the coming of the war, and the final illness of the President. Through it all the New Jersey journalist is concerned with those human contacts in politics which in Wilson's case were for the most part screened from view during the brief span of his public life.

**An Outline of Christianity: the Story of Our Civilization.** Dodd, Mead and Company, Distributors. In five volumes. Volume III. 578 pp.

The third volume of this comprehensive work is wholly concerned with the rise of the modern churches. The narrative begins where the second volume left off—at the Reformation, and continues to the present time. It is not a mere account of the growth of religious sects, but rather a succinct description of the progress made by all branches of

the Christian faith. The interpretative comments by Dean Shailer Mathews, of the University of Chicago, add not a little illumination to the text.

**Growing up With a City.** By Louise de Koven Bowen. Macmillan. 236 pp. Ill.

Mrs. Bowen has literally "grown up" with Chicago. Her mother was born in old Fort Dearborn and her own earliest recollections relate to her grandfather's brick house on Wabash Avenue at Monroe Street. Little of importance that has been going on during the last half-century of Chicago history has escaped Mrs. Bowen's observation. She has long been a leading worker in the Hull House activities and in various other organizations. No one can speak with surer knowledge of the social changes that have taken place in Chicago during the past fifty years.

**Caleb Heathcote, Gentleman Colonist.** By Dixon Ryan Fox. Charles Scribner's Sons. 308 pp. Ill.

Scarsdale, in Westchester County, New York, was the last of the English manors in our colonial history. The Lord of the Manor, Caleb Heathcote, was a young merchant, whose adventures in the new world brought him into contact with pirates and smugglers, but who took an honorable part in a government that was itself fast losing responsibility. He served for three years as Mayor of New York, and held other offices of importance in colonial administration. Altogether, his career, as related by Professor Fox, seems to have entitled him to a high place among the colonial administrators of his time.

**Echoes and Memories.** By Bramwell Booth. London: Hodder and Stoughton. 230 pp.

The Commander of the Salvation Army, who has recently visited the United States, gives in this book a series of vivid impressions of many persons whom he has known in his long and active career. The first three chapters are devoted to reminiscences of the author's father, General William Booth. There are also recollections of the early days of the Salvation Army and its relations with the church authorities of Great Britain. Among the personal reminiscences is an especially interesting chapter on W. T. Stead and Cecil Rhodes.

**The Evolution of Parliament.** By A. F. Pollard. Longmans, Green and Co. 472 pp. Ill.

The place of Parliament in English history and its relation to growth of British nationalism are absorbing topics. Mr. Pollard's description of them was published in 1920, and now appears in a revised edition with additional material. It is the most complete analysis of parliamentarism that has yet been attempted.

**The International Anarchy, 1904-1914.** By G. Lowes Dickinson. Century Company. 517 pp.

The author of this work freely admits, as few historians are willing to do, that he "has written,

consciously and deliberately, to point a moral." Believing that modern war is now incompatible with the continuance of civilization, Mr. Dickinson is unwilling to say again, as has been said so many times past: There has always been war and yet civilization has survived. He does not believe that such a survival can be counted upon in the future. In going back over the international relations of the ten years preceding the Great War, Mr. Dickinson, finds no trace of any of the purposes which, during the struggle, both sides attributed to themselves. The war, he says, "did not arise out of the desire for justice, liberty, democracy, or anything of the kind. It was a product of the international anarchy, as we have analyzed it." What is to prevent just such a state of anarchy being repeated in the future? Mr. Dickinson's thesis is that the League of Nations must be developed into a true international organization, to control in the interests of peace the policies of all governments. Finally, there must be general disarmament.

**Memoirs of Halid  Edib.** Century Company. 480 pp. Ill.

The author of these memoirs, known as the Jane Addams of Turkey, has had an extraordinary career. It is too big a story to be told in one book and there should be a second volume dealing especially with public events, in which, for a woman of Turkish birth, she has had a truly amazing part. A graduate of the American College for Girls at Constantinople, she was the first Turkish woman to discard the veil and became a leader in the emancipation and education of her countrywomen. She was identified with the movement which overthrew Sultan Abdul Hamid. She organized the first Turkish Department of Education and served as its first minister. In the war against the Greeks she enlisted as a sergeant in the army and fought through several bloody engagements. Her book, however, is concerned less with these public activities than with the fundamental things in the character of her people. As an exhibit, so to speak, of the Turkish mentality, her memoirs are without a counterpart in our literature.

**The Spell of the Turf.** By Samuel C. Hildreth and James R. Crowell. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company. 286 pp. Ill.

Here we have the story of American horse-racing told by the general manager of the famous Rancocas Stable. Mr. Hildreth looks back over a half-century of the sport and some of his accounts of racing events of former days are as readable and thrilling as any newspaper stories of our own time.

**Ice Ages, Recent and Ancient.** By A. P. Coleman. Macmillan. 340 pp. Ill.

Dr. Coleman is Professor Emeritus of Geology in the University of Toronto. He is one of the leading Canadian geologists and has devoted many years to the study of glaciation. His book has the value that comes not merely from an intimate knowledge of the literature of the subject, but from the author's personal experience and study. The text is illustrated by many excellent photographs.

## Sociology: Economics

**The Repression of Crime.** By Harry Elmer Barnes. George H. Doran Company. 382 pp.

The times clearly call for a restudy of the causes and prevention of crime. Professor Barnes gives in this book the results of such a research in historical penology. His conclusions will be regarded by many, and especially by members of the legal profession, as radical. In his proposals of preventive measures, he is governed by the broadest social considerations. Believing that the first stage of improvement "is to see that the human individual is well born," Professor Barnes demands that the state shall next provide for adequate education and this must include intelligent instruction on ideals of American citizenship and sufficient vocational training to provide able-bodied citizens with the means of making a livelihood. Proper housing and recreation also come into his program. Professor Barnes suggests several improvements in the measures employed for dealing with criminals. Police methods must be made scientific and the conviction of those guilty of crime must be relatively certain. A sweeping reconsideration of the jury system is called for. In place of the "untrained lay jury" that we now have, Professor Barnes would have permanent bodies of experts, especially trained in principles of criminal science and giving all of their time to such service. Besides all these changes in our present system, various improvements in our corrective institutions are proposed with a view to effecting the reformation of convicted criminals.

**Dependent America.** By William C. Redfield. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company. 278 pp.

Mr. Redfield, who was Secretary of Commerce in President Wilson's Administration, tells in this book some truths which will undoubtedly prove unpalatable when presented to the average American citizen. So much emphasis has always been placed on our exports that most of us are quite ignorant regarding the commodities that have to be brought into this country from abroad in order to maintain our daily life on its present economic basis. Mr. Redfield takes nothing for granted, but goes to the documentary sources of information in order to find just what articles necessary to our existence are brought from overseas. Among

other things, he shows that more than one hundred substances necessary for our national defense come from other countries; that we produce no tin as ore, but are the largest makers of tin plate in the world and consume more than one-half of the world's output; that half a million animals are daily killed throughout the world to supply the United States with leather. Such statements are unfamiliar to American readers. Careful reading of Mr. Redfield's book is likely to modify the views of most people in the matter of international trade relations.

**Principles and Practices of Coöperative Marketing.** By Eliot Grinnell Mears and Mathew O. Tobriner. Ginn and Company. 590 pp. Ill.

In order to place agricultural coöperation in its natural setting, the authors of this book have given special attention to the economic background, the social aspects, and the international phases of the subject. They have analyzed the actual practices of foreign and domestic coöperatives and given a full explanation of the fundamental principles of joint sale of farm products. It is estimated that farm group business in the United States during the year 1925 included the output of 2,000,000 growers and is valued at \$2,500,000,000. Not only in America but in Europe, South America, India and Japan there has been a striking development in agricultural coöperation. Good use of this book can be made in agricultural colleges and in economic courses given in literary colleges and in high schools.

**Population Problems in the United States and Canada.** Edited by Louis I. Dublin. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company. 326 pp.

A series of studies by experts, presented at the annual meeting of the American Statistical Association for 1924. These papers have been edited and arranged by the president of the association, Mr. Louis I. Dublin, statistician of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company. They deal with such questions as the natural increase of population, relation of population to agriculture, mineral resources for future populations, effect of immigration on the American type, and the effect of the health movement on future populations.

## Description and Travel

**Classic Concord.** Edited by Caroline Ticknor. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company. 284 pp. Ill.

The old town of Concord, Massachusetts, already famed in song and story, is the subject of a new volume compiled and edited by Miss Caroline Ticknor, and illustrated by drawings by Miss May Alcott. We have here presented in succession various descriptions of Concord written by Emerson, Hawthorne, Thoreau, Bronson Alcott, and Louisa Alcott, together with biographical sketches of each of these distinguished authors prepared by Miss Ticknor. The book forms a beautiful souvenir of one of New England's shrines.

**Aristocrats of the Garden.** By Ernest H. Wilson. Boston: The Stratford Company. 337 pp. Ill.

The author of this book has spent many years in searching through remote regions of eastern Asia for new plants which might be used for the embellishment of western gardens. He gives here a full description of all he discovered in his researches, stating the region and historical names and peculiarities of the plants in question, together with a wealth of detail which can only be appreciated by the lover and cultivator of flowering plants. The text is lavishly illustrated from photographs taken by the author.



**The Venture Book.** By Elinor Mordaunt. Century Company. 344 pp. Ill.

Elinor Mordaunt, the novelist, learned that freight ships were voyaging from Marseilles to the French West Indies and through the Panama Canal to Tahiti. The opportunity for adventure was too tempting to be put aside, and Mrs. Mordaunt embarked on the journey of which this book is the result. In the course of her wanderings she passed five days and nights in an open boat and, as she puts it, was lost to the world for four months.

**On the Mandarin Road.** By Roland Dorgelès. Translated from the French by Gertrude Emerson. Century Company. 342 pp. Ill.

This book gives a Frenchman's impressions of French Indo-China. In addition to the author's personal reactions to the customs of a strange land, one will find in the volume many native myths and bits of folklore, combined with not a little sober history and realistic description of social and economic conditions. In literary quality M. Dorgelès has been likened to Pierre Loti.

## Standard Works of Reference

**The New International Year Book, 1925.** Edited by Herbert Treadwell Wade. Dodd, Mead and Company. 778 pp. Ill.

Under the capable editorship of Mr. Herbert T. Wade, the twenty-fourth issue of the "New International Year Book" compares well with its predecessors in the interest and variety of its contents. The year 1925 had many important practical developments, especially in the further readjustment of conditions in Europe. In this country, prohibition, crime, immigration, marriage and divorce, and women in industry were among the social topics that came to the front during the year. These all received a due amount of attention in the pages of the "Year Book." Among the other special topics treated in this volume are polar research, aeronautics, and the Scopes trial in Tennessee, with the attendant issues. The pictures and maps in this volume are well above the average in quality and intrinsic interest.

**March's Thesaurus Dictionary.** By Francis Andrew March and Francis A. March, Jr., Philadelphia: Historical Publishing Company. 1400 pp.

Professor March, Sr., had a place in the first rank among the philologists of his time. His son now enjoys a distinction hardly less noteworthy in the same field. The labors of both men have gone into

this great dictionary, which combines the plan of Roget with the work of the foremost American lexicographers. This is a real treasure chest of living "English undefiled." We commend it unreservedly.

**Brockhaus: Handbuch des Wissens.** Leipzig: F. A. Brockhaus (New York: H. W. Wilson Company.) 3000 pp. Ill.

For considerably more than a century the German publishing house of Brockhaus has been engaged in the production of encyclopedias, large and small. These works are to be found in most of the world's great libraries. They are famed for their wealth of accurate information on every conceivable subject and for their compactness and orderliness in the arrangement of material. Since the war there has been a complete revision and enlargement of what was formerly known as the *Kleine Konversations-Lexikon*. As a "Handbook of Knowledge," it now appears in a four-volume set, containing upward of 10,000 illustrations and maps, all of excellent quality. Needless to say, the body of fact contained in these volumes, especially that relating to German affairs since the war, is not to be found elsewhere except as the result of long-continued research in various separate sources. This is one of the few post-war reference books of European origin which Americans cannot afford to ignore.

## Other Books of the Month

**Forty Immortals.** By Benjamin DeCasseres Joseph Lawren. 371 pp.

In a vivid, almost journalistic style, somewhat jerky at times, then again lyrical in quality, Mr. DeCasseres essays the task of summing up the illuminating and immortalizing spirit of each of his subjects. These forty short essays are by no means biographical, often lacking time and place, and strikingly but incidentally illustrated by little-known details and anecdotes. They embody the author's definition of the eternal essence in each man's belief, and are critical largely in the sense that they are analytical in the extreme. Mr. DeCasseres' "Forty" include Nietzsche, Maeterlinck, Hardy, Remy de Gourmont, Thoreau, D'Annunzio, Emerson, Baudelaire, Strindberg, Poe,

Tardieu, Walt Whitman, Ibsen, Gustave Le Bon, Stendhal, Hawthorne, Flaubert, Verlaine, Shakespeare and Rousseau.

**My Religion.** By Emil G. Hirsch. Macmillan. 382 pp.

The late Rabbi Hirsch of Chicago represented the spirit of modern Judaism in its most attractive aspects. A man of eloquence and learning, Dr. Hirsch, exerted a remarkable influence simply as a citizen and molder of public opinion. This volume, made up of addresses and sermons delivered by Dr. Hirsch on various occasions over a long period of years, is a fitting memorial of his services to the great public as well as to the community of his co-religionists.

## What Fiction Reviewers Are Saying

MOST reviewers seem to have the shelves for new novels above their desks already marked "Sinclair Lewis et al.," "Cyril Hume et al.," "Michael Arlen et al.," so that each maiden volume, newly arrived from the press, may be glanced over and tossed up on some shelf under some more or less appropriate category from which it rarely if ever returns. Not that we blame the reviewers for doing this, but the cynicism—or is it merely haste?—which leads to this quick disposal system, sometimes brings us to protest with Anne Parrish that "in spite of the general impression, Laurence Stallings did *not* invent the war, A. A. Milne did *not* invent children, and May Sinclair did *not* invent mammas and crinoline." We are at particular pains to mention here a few of the spring books which have defied classification, or are definitely accepted as the only ones in their class.

"An American Tragedy" (Boni & Liveright) is one of the first group. The most intrepid and hasty reviewers seem to approach with caution the granite-like steadfastness and integrity of Theodore Dreiser, whose purpose in his last book, as always, is to tell the whole truth about American life as he sees it, even if he sees it as unpleasant. The *Nation* points out that Dreiser was a trail-breaker in the days when fiction was a variety of confection, and that his greatness will be more and more obvious with the passage of time—"although the labor of reading him, with the sense it brings of grinding despair, as of being pursued in a nightmare over endless wastes of soft sand, is an experience, however profitable, that is too painful to be sought out by normal humanity." The novel depicts character weakness and strength with a care and penetration unmatched in American letters.

Nor is James Branch Cabell usually considered as anyone but a probable maker of American literary history. His latest book, "The Silver Stallion" (McBride) completes the cycle of romances about the imaginary realm Poictesme. Isabel Patterson says that like his other books, with a more cynical irony perhaps, it presents "a dramatic pageant of the Vital Lies by which men live."

Another American original is Ring Lardner, to whose new book, "The Love Nest and Other Stories" (Scribner's) many tributes have been paid. "I advise readers who wish to know the humor and temper of our own times to . . . acquire and read all his books" says Stuart Sherman. "It is quite possible that ten years hence these stories will be sought for as the tales that O. Henry wrote in Texas are sought for, or the tales that O. Henry's master, Kipling, wrote before he came out of India."

Thomas Boyd describes "Rough Justice" (Doubleday) by C. E. Montague, as a quiet novel of the war, and apologizes for the inadequacy of the description. Another reviewer calls it a tilt at military justice. A. Hamilton Gibbs, author of "Soundings" says that "beauty lives with kindness" in it, and sees Mr. Montague as a modern St. George booted and spurred to engage the dragon of Dry-Rot.

Two new books about everyday life in the South, "Teetfallow" (Doubleday) by T. S. Stribling and "Hill Billy" (Harper) by Rose Wilder Lane are

credited with original accomplishment such as Ellen Glasgow's in "Barren Ground." Mr. Stribling, says the *International Book Review*, makes clear "all the provincialism (in its best sense) all the religiosity and revivalism, all the miseducation that puzzled most people in America and England at the time of the Scopes evolutionary arguments." In style most reviewers find Mrs. Lane's the better book. It is a story of a shrewd and honest lawyer from the Ozarks; "a tale of homely virtues."

Quite another type of book is Esther Forbes's "O Genteel Lady" (Houghton), a story of a beautiful bluestocking in the Boston of Holmes, Emerson, and Louisa Alcott, of perfect crinoline manners and flaming, untrammelled passions. Among the many excellent characters in the book is a dying young lover, who "gives the feeling of the sorrow of spring, and then opens his mouth and talks like an elegant guide-book to Italy."

*The Chip and the Block*, by E. M. Delafield (Harper), excellently portrays, quiet life and unquiet temperament in an English family.

*The Fourth Queen*, by Isabel Patterson (Boni & Liveright), is a stirring tale of love and blood in Elizabethan days.

*Fifty Candles* (Bobbs), is a mystery story by the expert hand of Earl Biggers.

*Gandle Follows His Nose*, by Heywood Broun (Boni & Liveright), is delightful fictionizing of modern education.

*The Golden Beast*, by E. Philips Oppenheim (Little, Brown), is the best thriller in some seasons.

*Here and Beyond*, by Edith Wharton (Appleton), is a noteworthy collection of short stories.

*The High Adventure*, by Jeffrey Farnol (Little, Brown), is as good as his other good stories.

*It Isn't Done*, by William C. Bullitt (Harcourt), is one of the most interesting books of the year.

*Keller's Anna Ruth* (Houghton), is another of Elsie Singmaster's simple and beautiful stories of Pennsylvania life.

*The Land of Mist*, by A. Conan Doyle (Doran), is another good yarn about his "Lost World."

*Man Alone*, by George Agnew Chamberlain (Putnam), is a striking tale about a woman-hater.

*The Mauve Decade*, by Thomas Beer (Knopf), is of the '90's, of atmosphere and humor.

*Miss Tiverton Goes Out* (Bobbs), is that rare thing, a good anonymous book.

*Odtaa*, by John Masefield (Macmillan), gets its title from the abbreviation for "one damn thing after another."

*The Sacred Tree*, by Lady Murasaki (Houghton), is as good as the "Tale of Genji" whose sequel it is.

*The Strange Adventures of Mr. Collin* (Crowell), by Frank Heller, are truly strange adventures by the Swedish Conan Doyle.

*Unchanging Quest* (Doran), is Philip Gibbs's most important book.

*Urkey Island*, by Wilbur Daniel Steele (Harcourt), is a collection of stories by an able craftsman.

*Warning to the Curious*, by Mr. James (Arnold), are tales of the supernatural unmarred by commonplace elucidations.

*Beatrice*, by Arthur Schnitzler (Simon and Schuster), a finely wrought 173 pages of frank and moving beauty.

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